

# THE NATIONS OF EUROPE

## THE CAUSES AND ISSUES OF THE GREAT WAR





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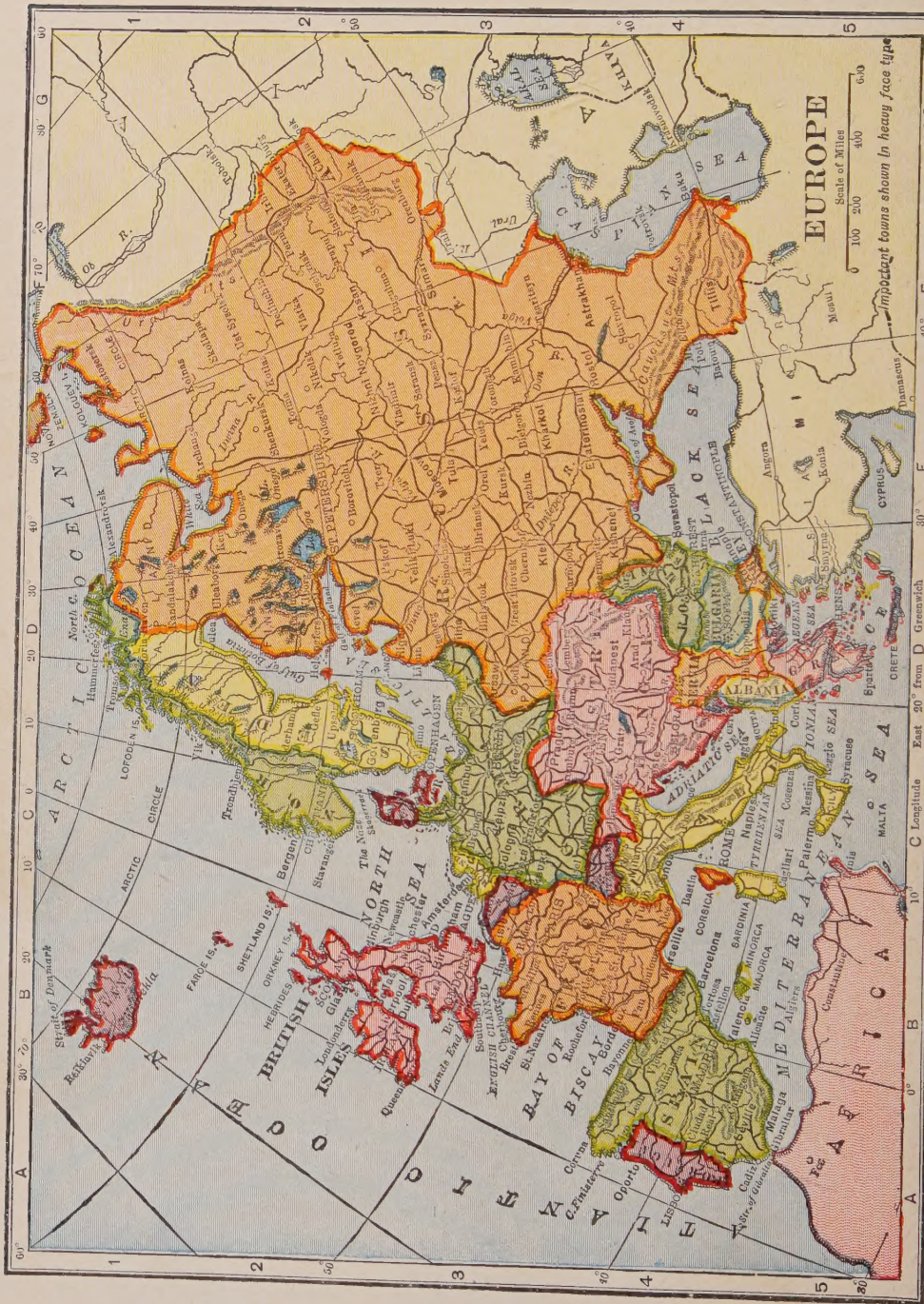














ONE HUNDRED YEARS OF CONFLICT BETWEEN

# THE NATIONS OF EUROPE

THE CAUSES AND ISSUES OF

## THE GREAT WAR

A GRAPHIC STORY OF

The Nations Involved, their History and  
Former Wars, their Rulers and Leaders,  
their Armies and Navies, their Resources, the  
Reasons for Conflict and the Issues at Stake

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BY

CHARLES MORRIS

Author of "Civilization: An Historical Review  
of Its Elements," "Our Naval Heroes," "World's  
Famous Orators," "Home Life in All Lands," etc.

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Illustrated

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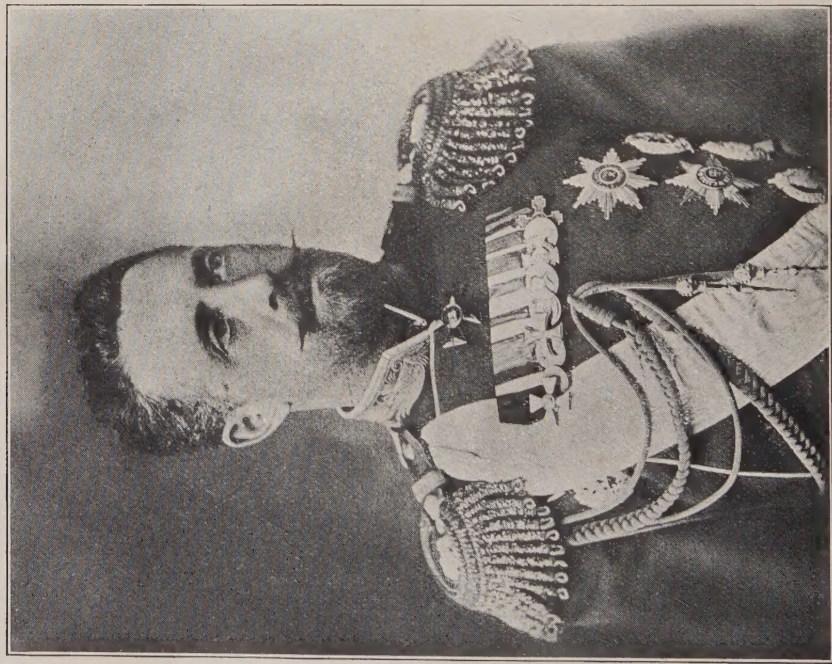


*Photo Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

### THE TWO GREAT HEADS OF THE TRIPLE ENTENTE

These two powerful monarchs, Czar Nicholas of Russia at the left and King George of Great Britain at the right, who look so much alike, joined forces in the war with the humbling of Germany as their chief object.

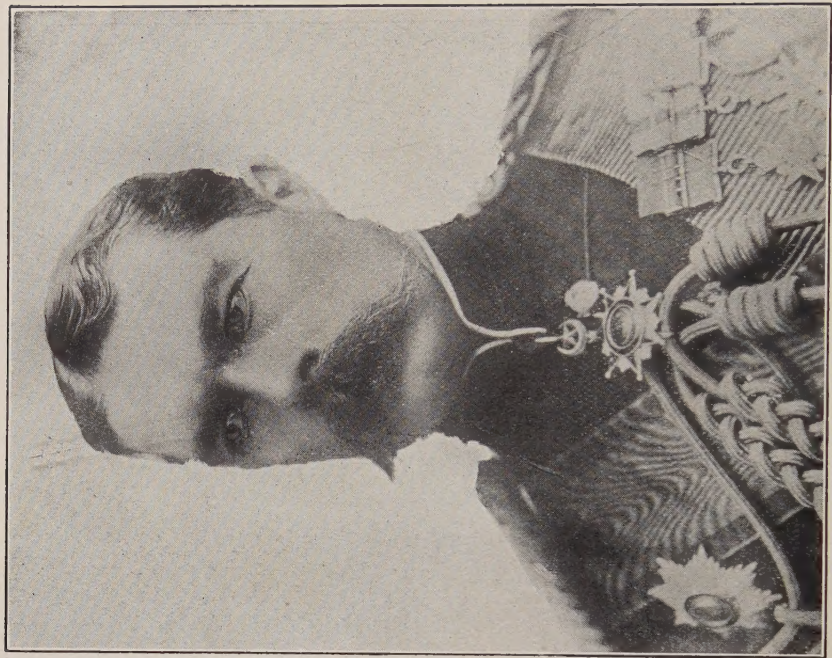




*Photo International News Service.*

#### **THE COMMANDER OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY**

Grand Duke Nicholas Nikolaevitch, Supreme Commander of the Armies of the Czar.



*Photo by Paul Thompson*

#### **GREAT BRITAIN'S SECRETARY OF WAR**

Earl Kitchener, the hero of Khartoum, who has fought his way up to the head of the army and was appointed Secretary of State for War at the outbreak of hostilities.





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### **THE WAR LORD OF EUROPE**

Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany leaving the palace on his way to review the troops mobilized for an almost world-wide war. He has built up the German army during his reign to be the finest fighting machine in the world.



*Photo Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

#### **THE COMMANDER OF THE GERMAN ARMY**

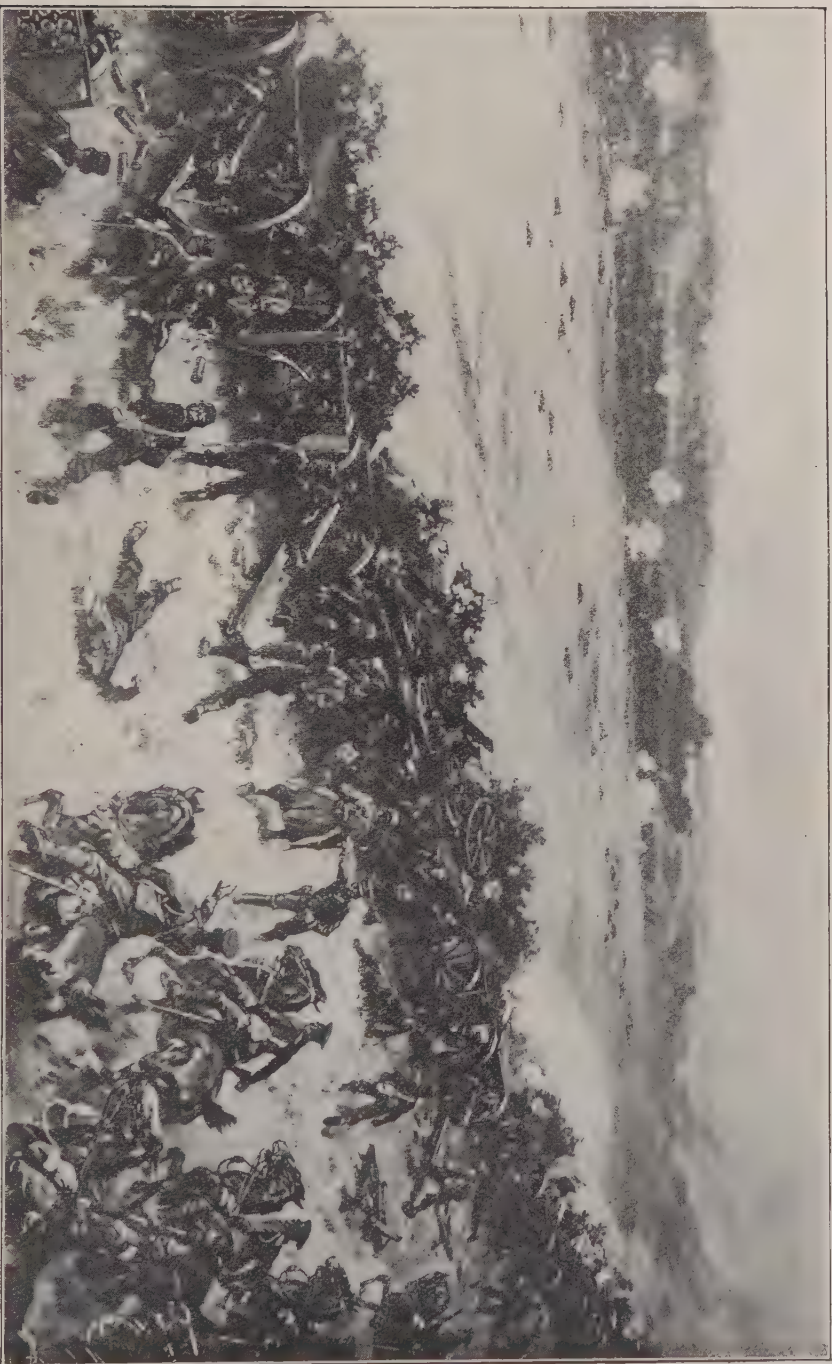
Count von Moltke, chief of the Grand General Staff, who directs the operations of the German army of more than four million men which undertook to fight almost alone against all Europe.



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#### **THE HEAD OF THE GERMAN NAVY**

High Admiral Alfred P. T. von Tirpitz, chief of the Kaiser's splendid naval force, upon whom was placed the responsibility of defending Germany's sea power and her many ports.



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### GERMAN TROOPS TRAPPED BY THE ALLIES

A combined attack near Cambrai. A deadly trap was laid for the advancing German infantry brigade, in the shape of a masked battery of French artillery and machine guns supported by entrenched infantry and British cavalry. A desultory fire from the French infantry drew the Germans across an intervening field. At 250 yards the French artillery sent a hurricane of shrapnel through the German ranks, while the ambuscaded machine guns literally cut many of the German infantrymen in two.





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### **SERBIAN ARTILLERY DEFENDING THE PASSES AT NISH**

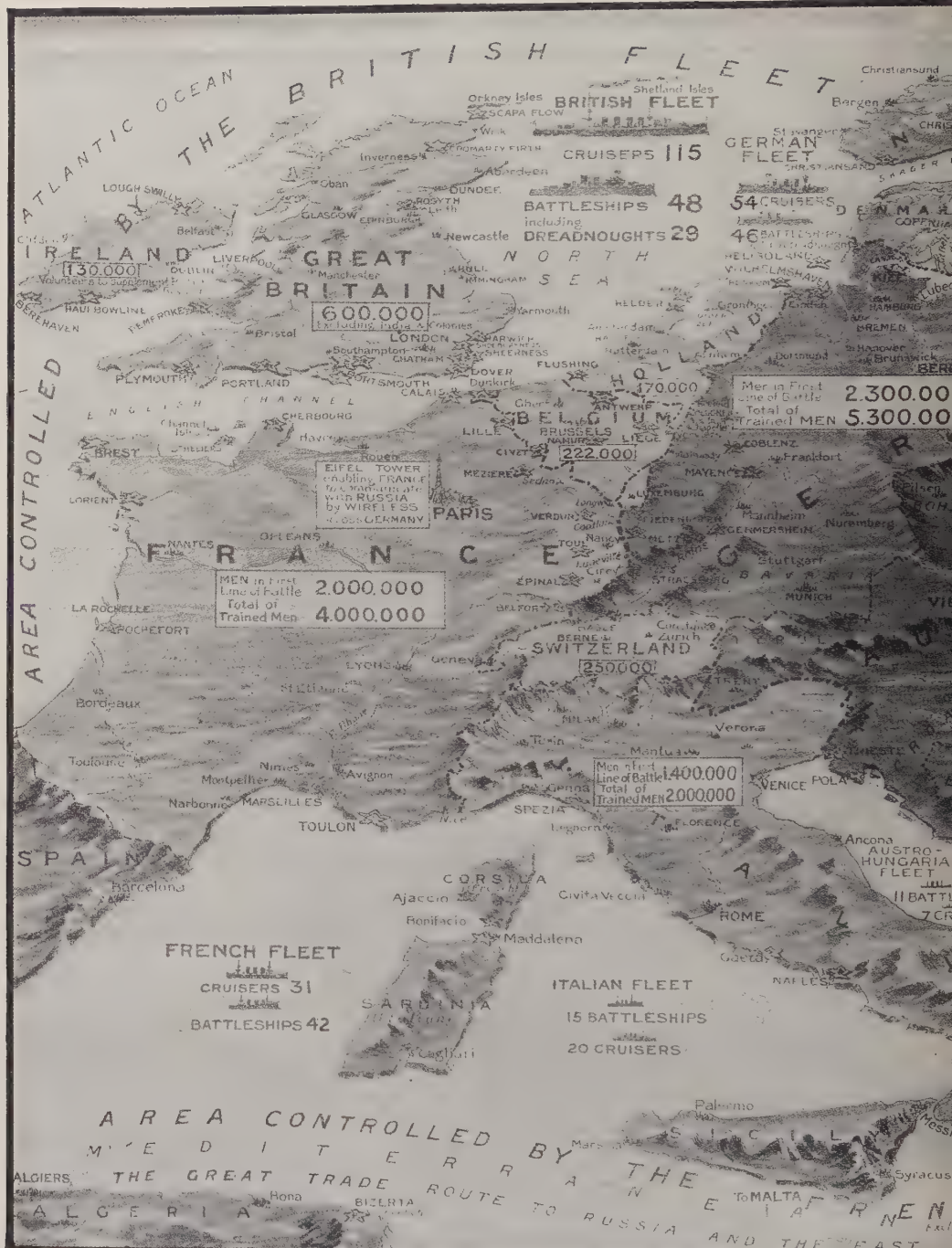
Small as Serbia is, she was able to put four hundred thousand men in the field in the Balkan War and resisted the might of Austria-Hungary very ably. The photo shows Serbian artillerymen in action in the mountains at Nish. The defence of the passes leading to the capital of Serbia by the Servians astounded the world.



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**EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA AND ARCHDUKE FERDINAND**

The aged Emperor at the left and at his left is Archduke Francis Ferdinand, whose assassination brought about the war between Austria-Hungary and Servia and embroiled the nations of Europe in conflict. In the photograph the Emperor is reviewing the Hungarian "jaegers," the fighting mountaineers of the dual monarchy.



RELIEF MAP OF EUROPE SHOWING THE STAGE OF THE WAR AT





## ENDOUS FORCES ENGAGED IN LAND AND SEA OPERATIONS



*Photo by Paul Thompson*

### COUNT BECHTOLD OF AUSTRIA

The able Premier of Austria, through whom were conducted the diplomatic negotiations with Serbia, which led to the eventual declaration of war.



*Photo by Paul Thompson*

### KING PETER OF SERVIA

A grizzled veteran of many battles and of the Balkan War, who defied the powerful dynasty of Austria-Hungary rather than accede to demands inimical to Serbia's honor and integrity.



*Photo Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

### THE PRESIDENT OF FRANCE

The chief executive of the French Republic, Raymond Poincaré, at his desk in the Élysées Palace, Paris. He is a member of the French Academy, a famous lawyer and author and the man upon whom falls most of the burden of defending the honor of France.



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### THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE FRENCH ARMY

General Joffre, the leader of the armies of France. Under his command the magnificent French army rushed to the German border filled with zeal to recover Alsace and Lorraine.





*Photo by Paul Thompson, N. Y.*

#### **FRENCH SUBMARINES ATTACKING SQUADRON**

A photograph of the French submarine fleet taken during a series of naval maneuvers, in which it was demonstrated that the submarines could have annihilated the entire force of battleships.



*Photo Trans-Atlantic News Service Co.*

### **KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM AT THE HEAD OF HIS ARMY**

The splendid defense put up by the Belgians against the German invaders astonished all the military authorities and gave time for the armies of France to come to their assistance.



*Photo Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

#### KAISER WILHELM AND HIS SIX SONS

The Kaiser is at the left and with his sons is seen leading a military parade in Berlin just after a secret conference with them about the war. From left to right: Kaiser Wilhelm, Crown Prince Eitel Friederich, Prince Adalbert, Prince August, Prince Oscar and Prince Joachim.

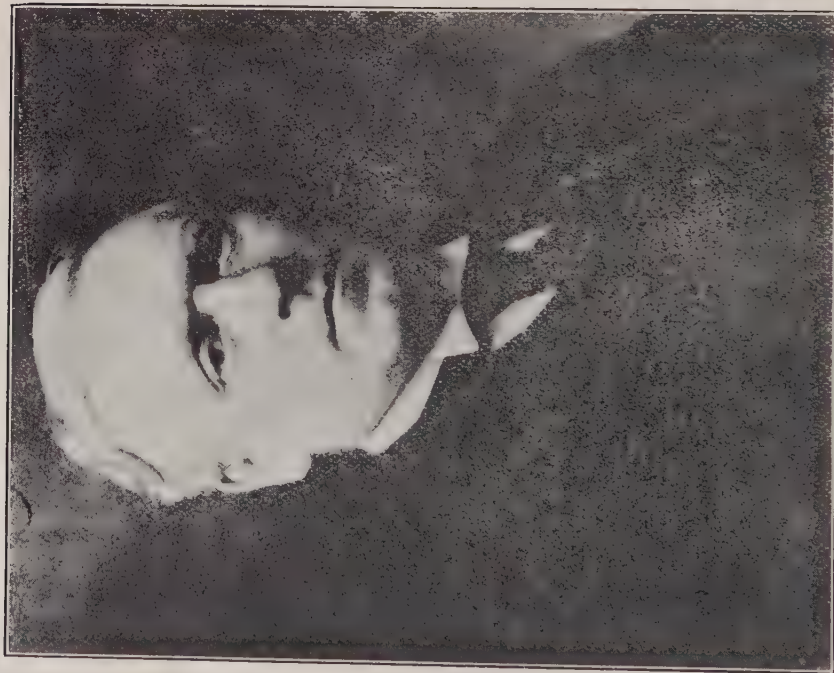




*Photo by Paul Thompson*

# **KING GEORGE AT ALDERSHOT**

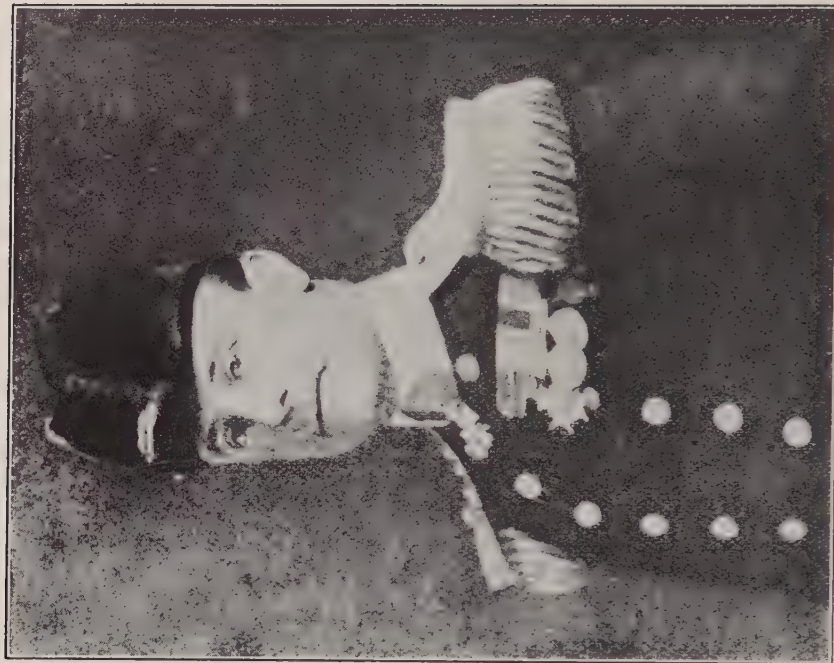
King George is a splendid equestrian, and, in addition to deriving much pleasure from this exercise, carries himself with kingly bearing on a horse.



*Photo International News Service.*

#### **PREMIER ASQUITH OF GREAT BRITAIN**

The Right Honorable Herbert Henry Asquith is the leader of the British government and the most powerful man in England since 1908. On him rests most of the responsibility for Great Britain's conduct of the war.



*Photo International News Service.*

#### **THE COMMANDER OF THE BRITISH NAVY**

Vice-Admiral Sir John Jellicoe, Lord of the Admiralty and Controller of the Navy, Commander of the Atlantic Fleet.





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### FRENCH SOLDIERS MARCHING TO THE MOBILIZATION POINT

France flamed with excitement when the news of the German invasion came. The troops, ready and anxious for war, proceeded smoothly and swiftly to their concentration points, blazing with zeal to repel the invaders and recover the territory lost to France in the Franco-Prussian War.



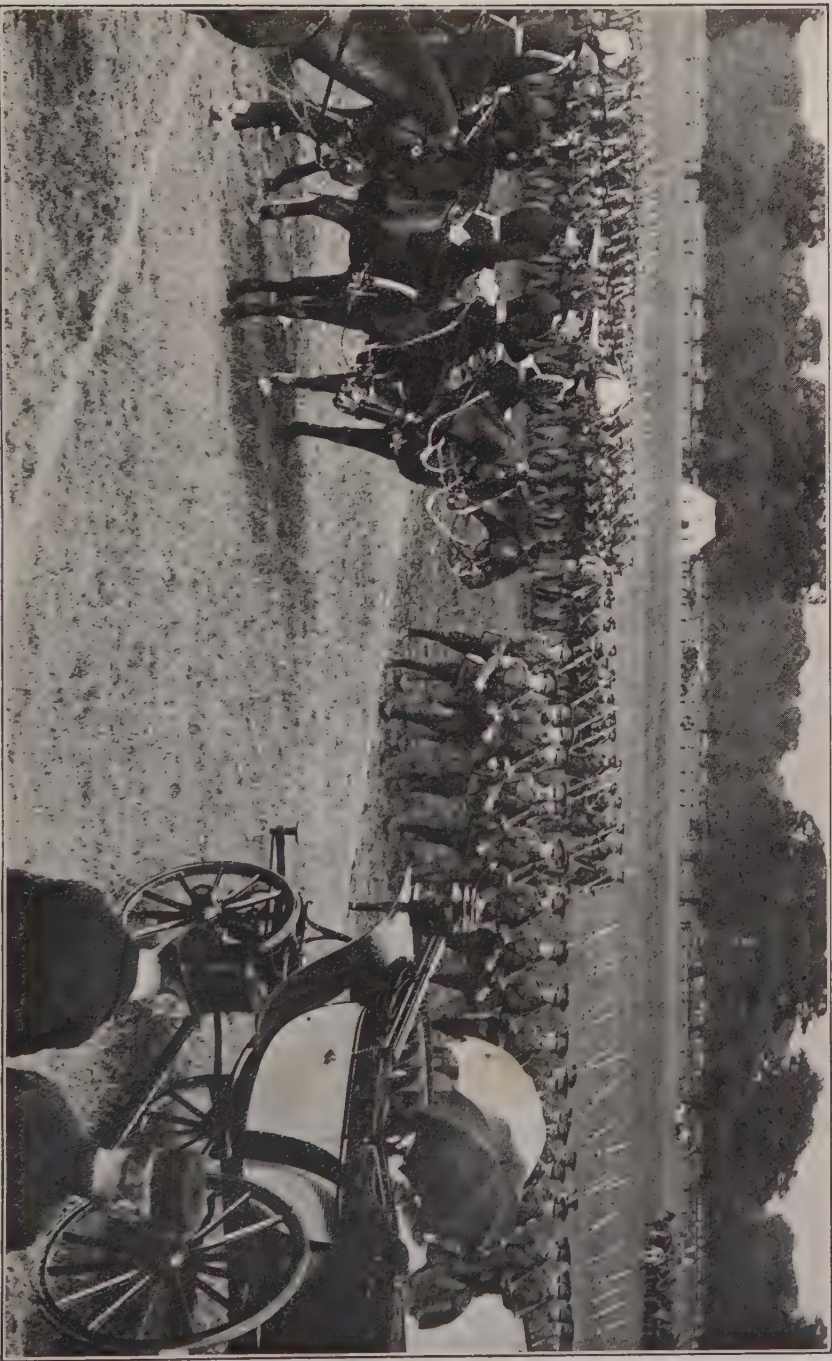


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### **FRENCH BATTERIES IN ACTION**

On the splendid French artillery falls much of the brunt of defending the frontier. artillery is the finest and best equipped in the world.

Except possibly for the German, the French

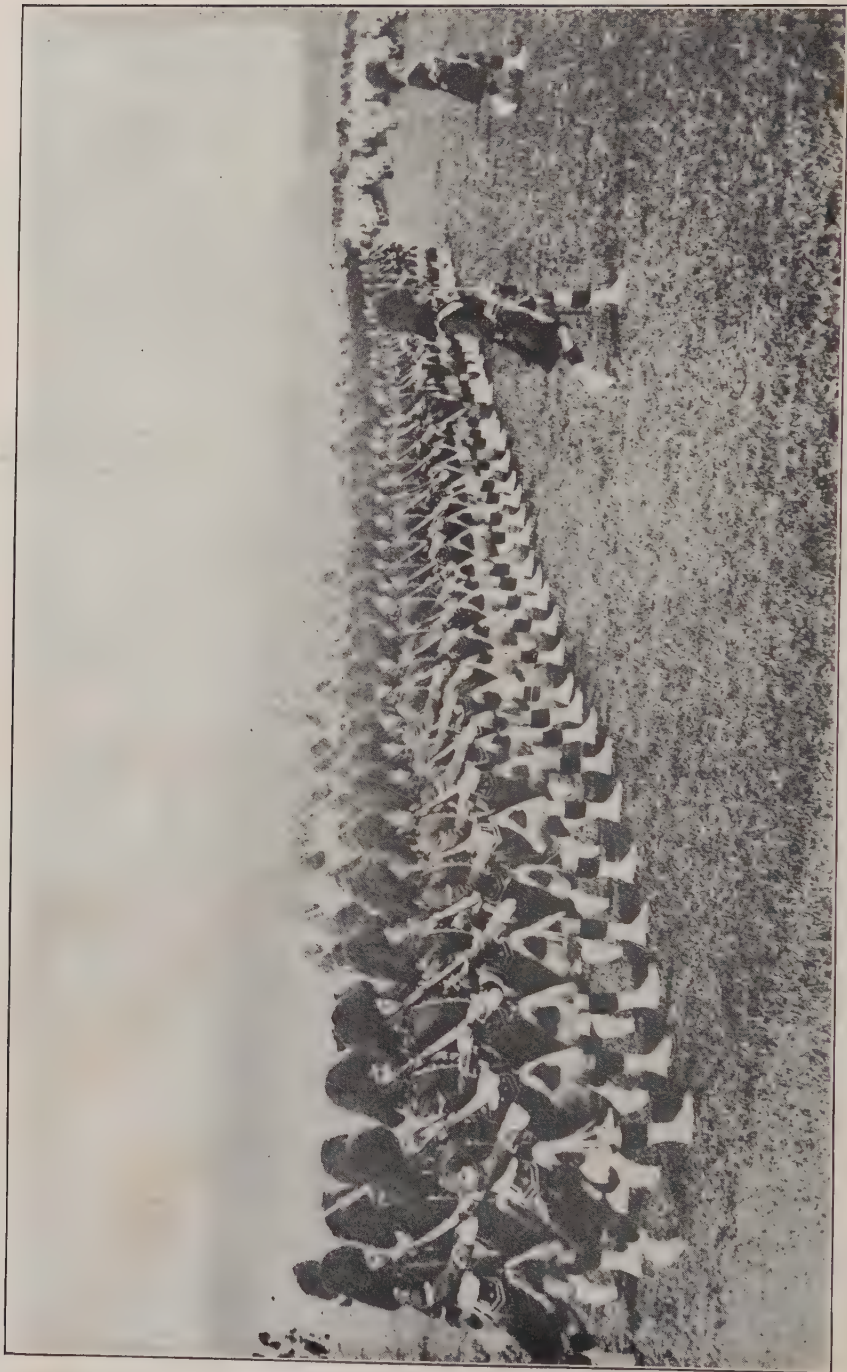


*Photo by Trans-Atlantic Co.*

### REVIEW OF OFFICERS' TRAINING CORPS BY KING GEORGE

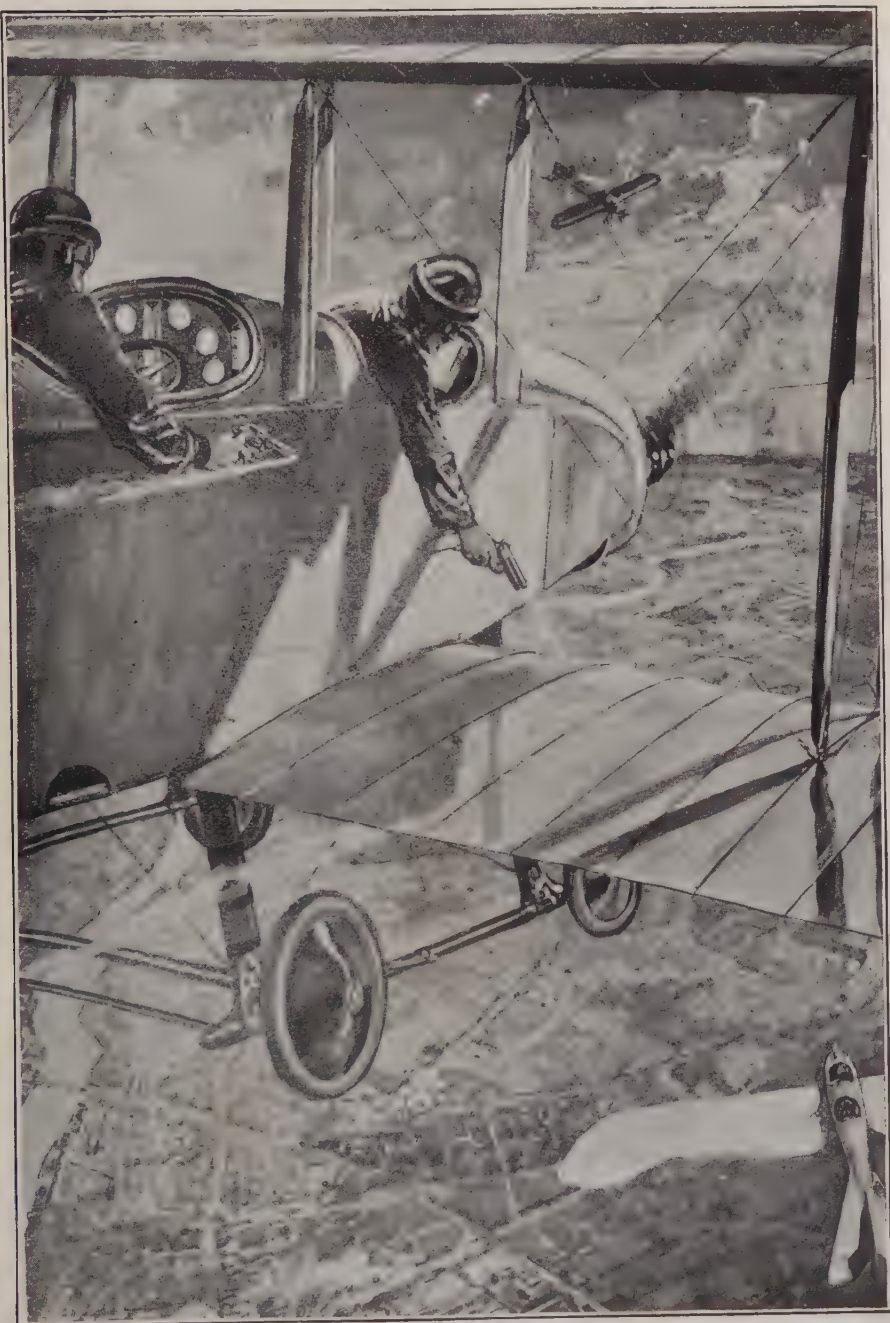
To bear the title of an officer of the British Army is to assume the traditions which rest upon these men for loyalty, bravery and efficiency. Subjects of Great Britain, the world over, place their confidence in this corps, known as "The Pride of Great Britain."





#### THE CRACK "BLACK WATCH" REGIMENT

The "Black Watch" Regiment is famous in British history, and is considered one of the finest fighting forces in the world. It was one of the first regiments called out upon Britain's declaration of war against Germany, August 4, 1914.



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### A PISTOL DUEL IN THE AIR

A German Taube monoplane having located the British forces and made a sketch of their position, was suddenly attacked from above by a British Bristol biplane and a French Bleriot monoplane. In this way many pilots were shot in the air and their machines brought to the ground.





### THE CHARGE OF THE 9th BRITISH LANCERS ON THE GERMAN GUNS

One of the most notable exploits of this famous cavalry regiment was their charge on a German battery, which had given much trouble, and their cutting down all the gunners and putting the guns out of action.



### **FLEET OF HYDRO-AEROPLANES, NEW AUXILIARY TO BRITISH NAVY**

Among Britain's force of over 350 heavier-than-air and gas-buoyed airships, none are capable of rendering more vital service than the hydro-aeroplanes, because of their ability to rest on the water instead of having to depend on a sustained flight in the air.





## GREAT BRITAIN

A graphic showing of the size and formidableness of the British fleet among European powers.



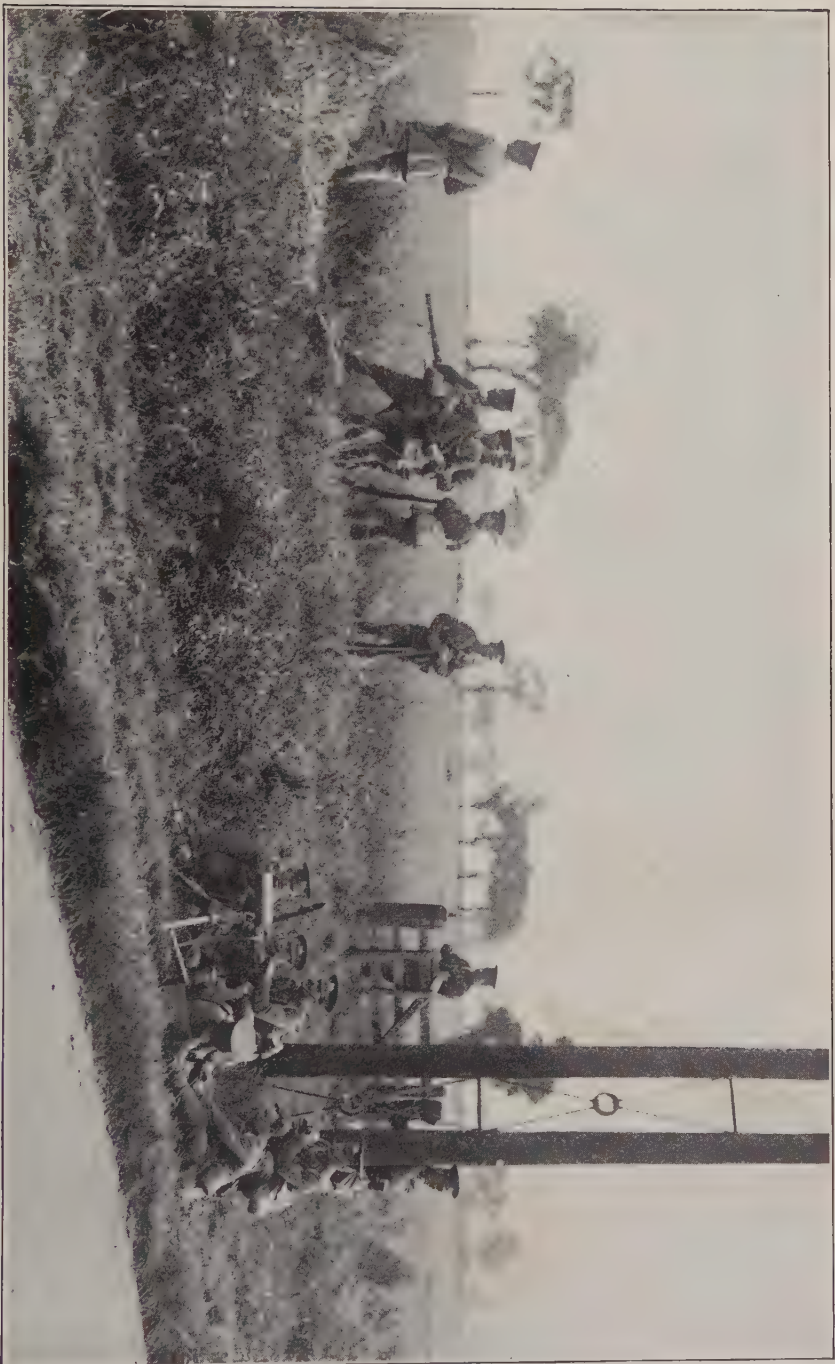




*Photo by Trans-Atlantic News Service Co.*

### **A BRITISH CREW**

The marines and crew of H. M. S. "Camperdown" gathered on the forward deck of the battleship.



*Photo by Paul Thompson, N. Y.*

### **BRITISH MACHINE-GUN PLATOON**

A platoon of British soldiers bringing a machine-gun into action. A mere handful of soldiers thus equipped are capable of working greater destruction than many times their number with less modern weapons.

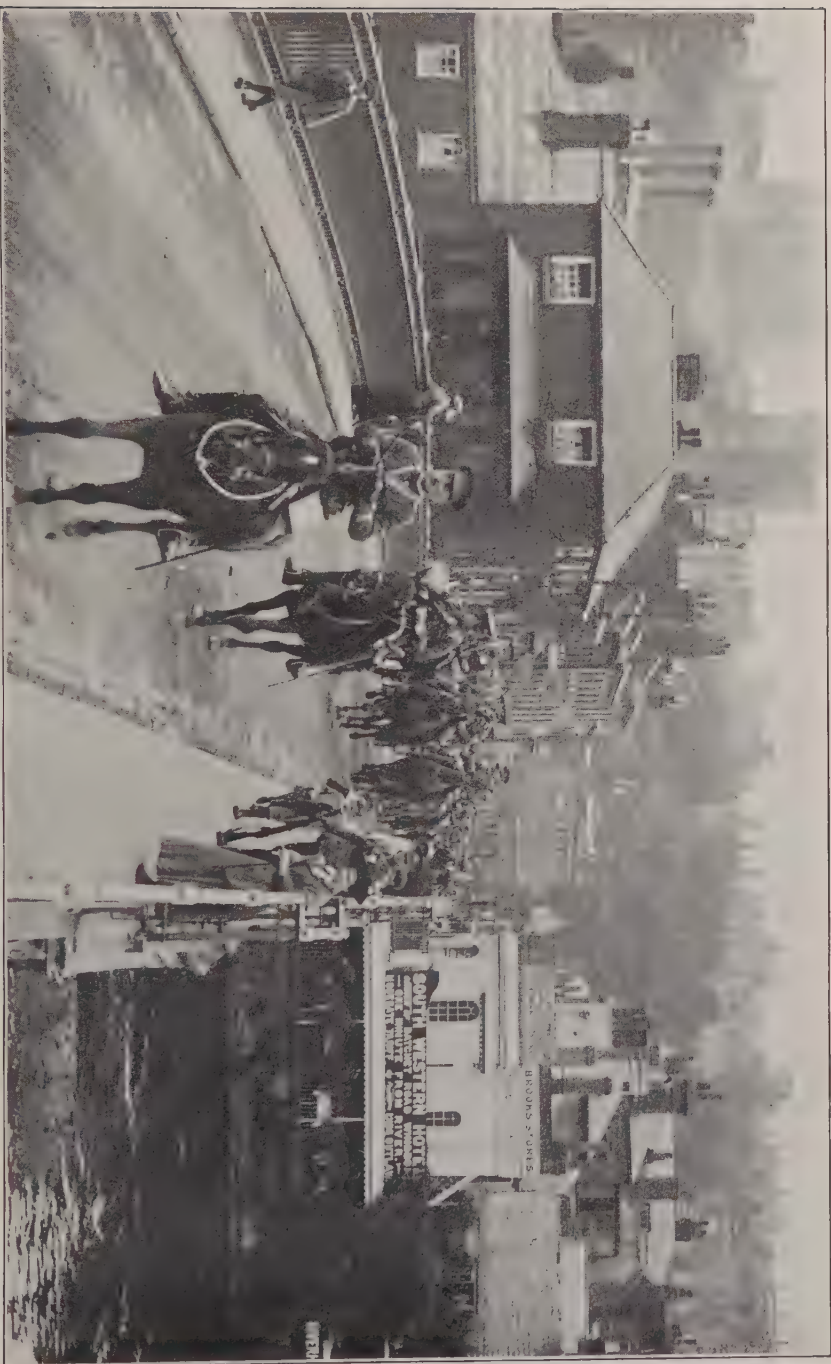




*Photo by Paul Thompson*

### **THE CARE OF THE WOUNDED**

The British Army Medical Corps in action. After receiving the surgeon's attention, the tag which each soldier carries bearing his name, number and regiment, is tied to a button to make identification easy.



*Photo by Paul Thompson, N. Y.*

### CAVALRY MOVEMENT IN BRITISH ARMY MANEUVERS

The efficiency of the British army is largely based on their constant preparedness. Frequent practice maneuvers serve to keep them always ready to respond effectively to any call for active service.





### THE BATTLE OF MONS

Ten several times the Germans succeeded in throwing pontoons over the water, and ten times the British artillery destroyed them.

*Photo Trans-Atlantic News Service Co.*

### **GERMAN TORPEDO BOAT DIVISION BREAKING THROUGH THE ENEMY'S LINES**

The German Navy is especially strong in torpedo craft and their experts have great faith in their ability to break through the fire of battleships because of their small size and great speed. Any one of the many torpedoes carried by these vessels is capable of sinking the largest battleship if it reaches its mark.







*Photo Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

**GERMAN DIRIGIBLE FLYING OVER THE BRITISH FLEET**

In this war the world experienced for the first time the horrors of aerial warfare. The dirigible shown here is a mammoth Zeppelin capable of destroying the entire fleet with bombs. All the powers are well equipped with aircraft and it is inevitable that they should play an important part in the struggle.

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## CHAPTER I

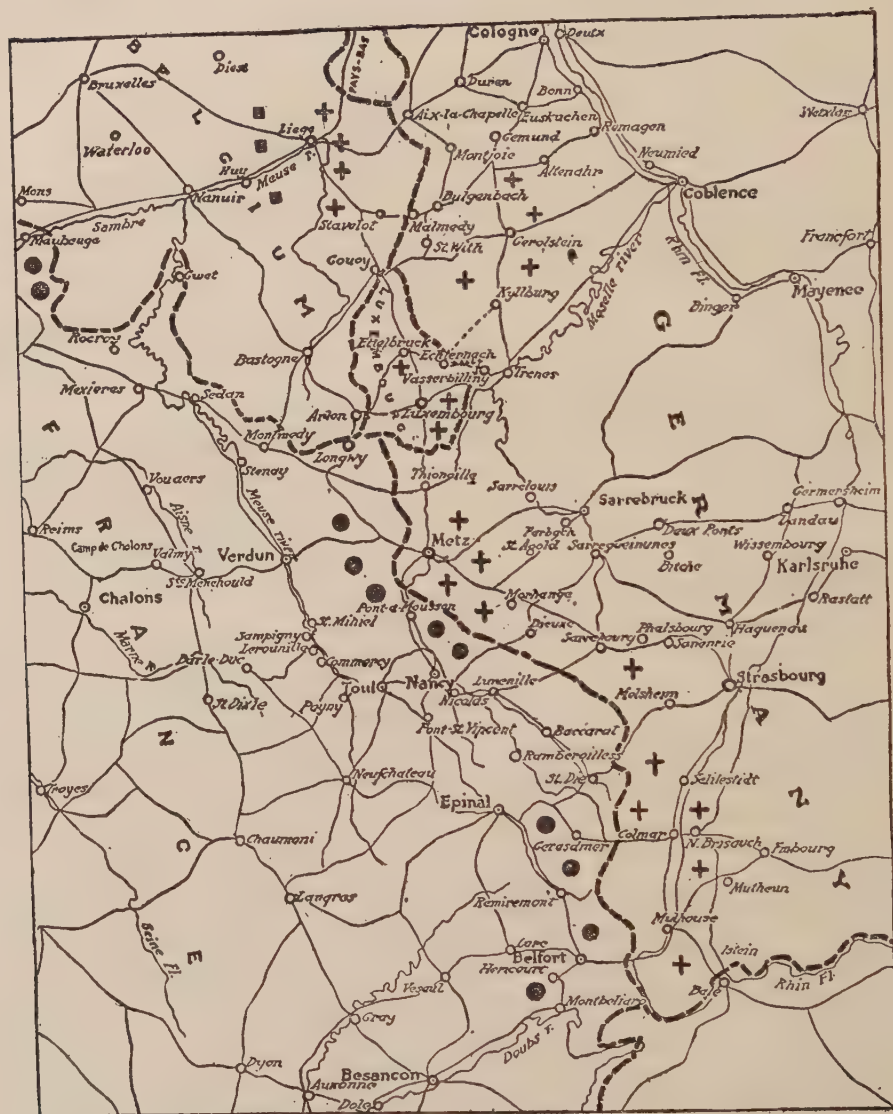
### All Europe Plunged Into War

Dramatic Suddenness of the Outbreak—The World Amazed and Astounded—  
Trade and Commerce Paralyzed—All Stock Exchanges Closed—Travel and Com-  
munication Between the Countries of Europe Cut Off—American Tourists Stranded  
—Inability to Obtain Money on Letters of Credit.

**A**T the opening of the final week of July, 1914, the whole world—with the exception of Mexico, in which the smouldering embers of the revolution remained—was in a state of profound peace. The clattering hammers and whirling wheels of industry were everywhere to be heard; great ships furrowed the ocean waves, deep-laden with the world's products and carrying thousands of travelers bent on business or enjoyment. Countless trains of cars, drawn by smoke-belching locomotives, traversed the long leagues of iron rails, similarly laden with passengers and freight, engaged in peaceful errands or intended for peaceful purposes. All seemed at rest so far as national hostile sentiments were concerned. All was in motion so far as useful industries demanded service. Europe, America, Asia and Africa alike had settled down as if to a long holiday from war, and the advocates of universal peace were jubilant over the progress of their cause, holding peace congresses and conferences at The Hague and elsewhere, and giving Nobel prizes of honor even to so questionable an advocate of peace as Theodore Roosevelt, the redoubtable Colonel of the Rough Riders.

Such occasions occur at frequent intervals in nature, in which a deep calm, a profound peace, rests over land and sea. The winds are hushed, the waves at rest; only the needful processes of the universe are in action, while for the time the world forgets the chained demons of unrest and destruction. But too quickly the chains are loosened, the winds and waves set free; and the hostile

# WHERE THE BATTLES OF WESTERN EUROPE HAVE BEEN AND WILL BE FOUGHT



Belgian Troops ■ ■ German Troops ++ French Troops ● ●



## ALL EUROPE PLUNGED INTO WAR

forces of nature rush over earth and sea, spreading terror and devastation in their path. Such energies of hostility are not confined to the elements. They exist in human communities. They underlie the political conditions of the nations, and their outbreak is at times as sudden and unlooked-for as that of the winds and waves. Such was the state of political affairs in Europe at the date mentioned, apparently calm and restful, while below the surface hostile forces which had long been fomenting unseen, were ready to burst forth and overwhelm the world.

### DRAMATIC SUDDENNESS OF THE OUTBREAK

On the night of July 25th the people of the civilized world settled down to restful slumbers, with no dreams of the turmoil that was ready to burst forth. On the morning of the 26th they rose to learn that a great war had begun, a conflict, the possible width and depth of which no man was yet able to foresee; and as day after day passed on, each day some new nation springing into the terrible arena until practically the whole of Europe was in arms and the Armageddon seemed at hand, the world stood amazed and astounded, wondering what hand had loosed so vast a catastrophe, what deep and secret causes lay below the ostensible causes of the war. These causes are largely as yet unknown. As a panic at times affects a vast assemblage, with no one aware of its origin, so a wave of hostile sentiment may sweep over vast communities until the air is full of calls for war with scarce a man knowing why.

### THE WORLD AMAZED AND ASTOUNDED

What is already said only feebly outlines the state of consternation into which the world was cast in that fateful week in which the doors of the Temple of Janus, long closed, were suddenly thrown wide open and the terrible God of War marched forth, the whole earth trembling beneath his feet. It was the breaking of a mighty storm in a placid sky, the fall of a meteor which spreads terror and destruction on all sides, the explosion

## CHAPTER II

### Underlying Causes of the Great European War

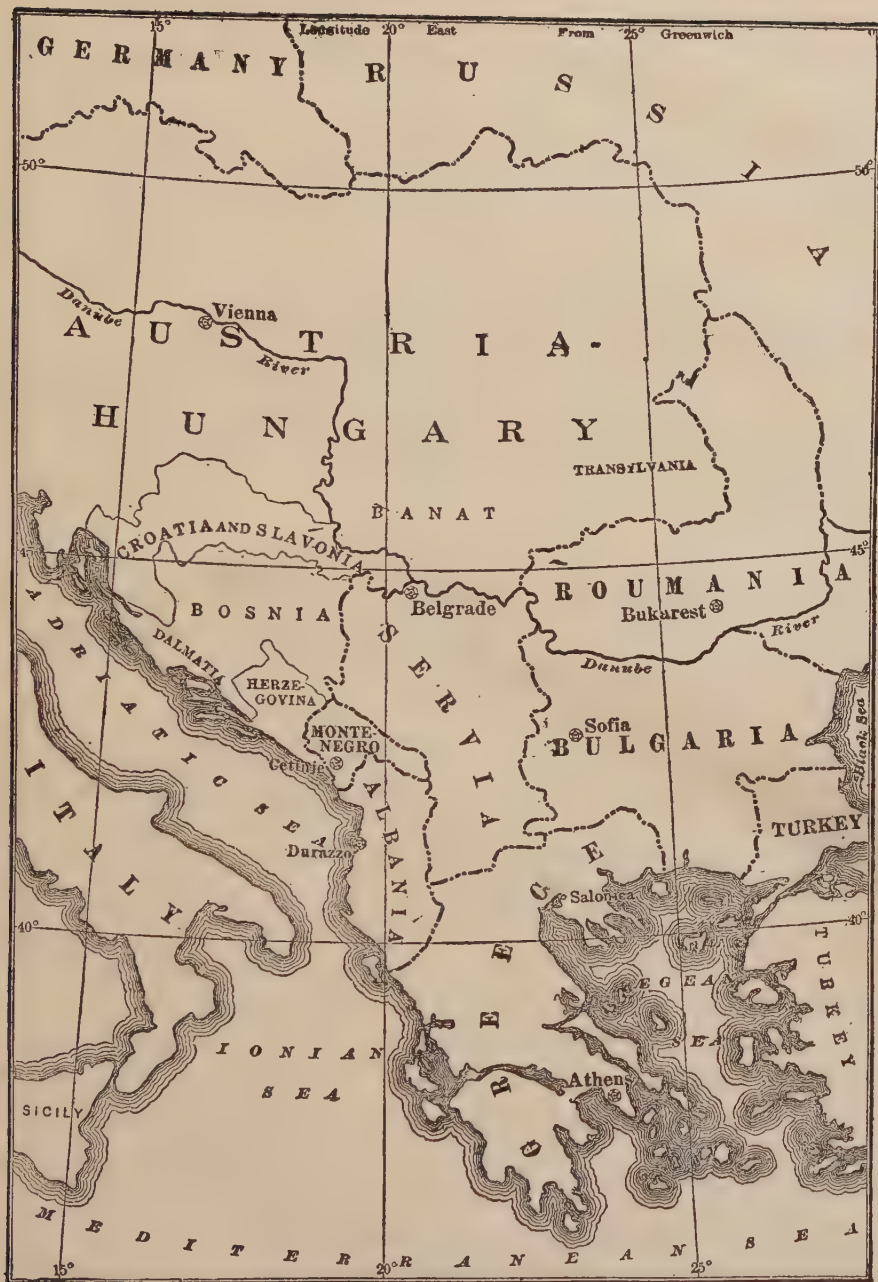
Nations Lying in Wait for War—Assassination of the Austrian Crown Prince a Pretext—The Deep-rooted Causes—Europe a Camp of Hostile Powers—The Triple Alliance and Triple Entente—Hidden and Apparent Forces at Work.

**W**HAT brought on the mighty war which so suddenly sprang forth? What evident, what subtle, what deep-hidden causes led to this sudden demolition of the temple of peace? What pride of power, what lust of ambition, what desire of imperial dominion cast the armed hosts of the nations into the field of conflict, on which multitudes of innocent victims were to be sacrificed to the insatiate hunger for blood of the modern Moloch?

Here are questions which few at present are capable of answering. Ostensible answers may be given, surface causes, reasons of immediate potency. But no one will be willing to accept these as the true moving causes. For a continent to spring in a week's time from complete peace into almost universal war, with all the great and several of the small powers involved, is not to be explained by an apothegm embraced within the limits of a paragraph. If not all, certainly several of these nations had enmities to be let loose, ambitions to be gratified, long-hidden purposes to be put in action. They seemed to have been awaiting an opportunity and it came when the anger of the Servians at the seizure of Bosnia by Austria culminated in a mad act of assassination.

#### ASSASSINATION OF THE AUSTRIAN CROWN PRINCE

The immediate cause, so far as apparent to us, of the war in question was the murder, on June 29, 1914, of the Austrian Crown Prince Francis Ferdinand and his wife, while on a visit to Sarajevo,



BATTLE-GROUND OF EASTERN EUROPE



## UNDERLYING CAUSES OF THE GREAT WAR

the capital of Bosnia, the assassin being a Servian student, supposed to have come for that purpose from Belgrade, the Servian capital. The inspiring cause of this dastardly act was the feeling of hostility towards Austria which was widely entertained in Servia. Bosnia was a part of the ancient kingdom of Servia. The bulk of its people are of Slavic origin and speak the Servian language. Servia was eager to regain it, as a possible outlet for a border on the Mediterranean Sea. When, therefore, in 1908, Austria annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, which have been under her military control since 1878, the indignation in Servia was great. While it had died down in the subsequent years, the feeling of injury survived in many hearts, and there is little reason to doubt that the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand was a result of this pervading sentiment.

In fact, the Austrian government was satisfied that the murder plot was hatched in Belgrade and held that Servian officials were in some way concerned in it. The Servian press gave some warrant for this, being openly boastful and defiant in its comments. When the Austrian consul-general at Belgrade dropped dead in the consulate the papers showed their satisfaction and hinted that he had been poisoned. This attitude of the press evidently was one of the reasons for the stringent demand made by Austria on July 23d, requiring apology and change of attitude from Servia and asking for a reply by the hour of 6 P. M. on the 25th. The demands were as follows:

1. An apology by the Servian government in its official journal for all Pan-Servian propaganda and for the participation of Servian army officers in it, and warning all Servians in the future to desist from anti-Austrian demonstrations.

2. That orders to this effect should be issued to the Servian army.

3. That Servia should dissolve all societies capable of conducting intrigues against Austria.

4. That Servia should curb the activities of the Servian press in regard to Austria.

## CHAPTER III

### Strength and Resources of the Warring Powers

Old and New Methods in War—Costs of Modern Warfare—Areas and Populations of the Nations Involved—Comparison of these with the United States—Physical and Financial Resources of the Powers—Military and Naval Strength of Each—Growth of National Ambitions and Resources During the Past Century.

**W**ITHIN the whole history of mankind the nations of the earth have never been so thoroughly equipped for the art of warfare as at the present time. While the arts of construction have enormously developed, those of destruction have fully kept pace with them, and the horrors of war have enormously increased side by side with the benignities of peace. It is interesting to trace the history of warfare from this point of view. Beginning with the club and hammer of the stone age, advancing through the bow and arrow and the sling-shot of later times, this art, even in the great days of ancient civilization, the eras of Greece and Rome, had advanced little beyond the sword and spear, crude weapons of destruction as regarded in our times. They have in great part been set aside as symbols of military dignity, emblems of the "pomp and circumstance of glorious wars."

Descending through the Middle Ages we find the sword and spear still holding sway, with the bow as an important accessory for the use of the common soldier. As for the knight, he has become an iron-clad champion so incased in steel that he can fight effectively only on horseback, becoming largely helpless on foot. At length, the greatest stage in the history of war, the notable invention of gunpowder, was achieved, and an enormous transformation took place in the whole terrible art. The musket, the rifle, the pistol, the cannon were one by one evolved, to develop in the nineteenth century into the breech-loader, the machine gun, the bomb, and the

## RESOURCES OF THE WARRING POWERS

multitude of devices fitted to bring about death and destruction by wholesale, instead of by the retail methods of older days.

At sea, the sailing vessel, with her far-flung white wings and rows of puny guns, has given way to the steel-clad battleship with her fewer but enormously larger cannons, capable of flinging huge masses of iron many miles through the air and with a precision of aim that seems incredible for such great distances.

We must add to this the torpedo boat, a tiny craft with a weapon capable of sinking the most costly and stupendous of battleships, and the submarine, fitted to creep unseen upon blockading fleets, and deal destruction with nothing to show the hand that dealt the deadly blow. Even the broad expanse of the air has been made a field of warlike activity, with scouting airships flying above contending armies and signaling their most secret movements to the forces below.

### OLD AND NEW METHODS IN WAR

In regard to loss of life in the battlefield, it may be said that many of the wars of ancient times surpassed the bloodiest of those of modern days, despite the enormously more destructive weapons and implements now employed. When men fought hand to hand, and no idea of quarter for the defeated existed, entire armies were at times slaughtered on the field. In our days, when the idea of mercy for the vanquished prevails, this wholesale slaughter of beaten hosts has ceased, and the death list of the battlefield has been largely reduced by caution on the part of the fighters. With the feeling that a dead soldier is utterly useless, and a wounded one often worse than useless, as constituting an impediment, every means of saving life is utilized. Soldiers now fight miles apart. Prostrate, hidden, taking advantage of every opportunity of protection, every natural advantage or artificial device, vast quantities of ammunition are wasted on the empty air, every ball that finds its quarry in human flesh being mayhap but one in hundreds that go astray. In the old-time wars actual hand-to-hand fighting took



## RESOURCES OF THE WARRING POWERS

place. Almost every stroke told, every thrusting blade was directly parried or came back tinged with blood. In modern wars fighting of this kind has ceased. A battle has become a matter of machinery. The strong arm and stalwart heart are replaced by the bullet-flinging machine, and it is a rare event for a man to know to whose hand he owes wound or death. Such, at least, was largely the case in the war between Russia and Japan in 1905. But today we read of hordes of soldiers charging up to the muzzles of machine guns, and being mowed down like ripened wheat.

### COSTS OF MODERN WARFARE

Loss of human life in war, as will be seen, has not increased, but in other directions the cost of warfare has enormously grown. In the past, little special preparation was needed by the fighter. Armies could be recruited off-hand from city or farm and do valiant duty in the field, with simple and cheap weapons. In our days years of preliminary preparation are deemed necessary and the costs of war go on during times of profound peace, millions of men who could be used effectively in the peaceful industries spending the best years of their lives in learning how best to destroy their fellow-men.

This is only one phase of the element of cost. Great workshops are devoted to the preparation of military material, of absolutely no use to mankind except as instruments of destruction. The costs of war even, in times of peace, are thus very large. But they increase in an enormous proportion after war has actually begun, millions of dollars being needed where tens formerly sufficed, and national bankruptcy threatening the nation that keeps its armies long in the field. The American Civil War, fought half a century ago, was a costly procedure for the American people. If it had been fought five or ten years ago its cost would have been increased five-fold, so great has been the progress in this terrible art in the recent interval.

## STAGGERING FIGURES ON THE GREATEST WAR IN HISTORY

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Based on the latest figures obtainable, approximately 82 per cent of the population of Europe is at war. Of an estimated total of 495,473,000 persons in all Europe, nations having an approximate total of 407,073,000 inhabitants are fighting against each other with a total army strength in time of war of about 18,700,000 men. The statistics of the eight warring nations are approximately as follows:

Nations	Estimated Population	War Strength of Army
Russia.....	160,100,000	5,400,000
Germany.....	64,900,000	4,350,000
Austria-Hungary.....	51,340,000	1,820,000
England (United Kingdom)....	45,000,000	800,000
France.....	39,601,000	2,500,000
Italy.....	34,700,000	*3,220,000
Belgium.....	7,432,000	340,000
Servia.....	4,000,000	270,000
Totals.....	407,073,000	18,700,000

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\*The figures for the Italian army include about 2,000,000 territorials who are only partially trained.



NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE





*From the Painting by V. Checa.*

### THE RAVINE AT WATERLOO

One of Napoleon's desperate charges to stem the tide of defeat on the great Belgian battlefield came suddenly on the sunken road of Ohain, into which horses and riders plunged to death, forced over the brink by the thundering ranks behind.



*From the Painting by Yvon.*

### THE WOUNDING OF GENERAL BOSQUET AT SEBASTOPOL

Pierre Francois Joseph Bosquet was one of the most successful French marshals in the Crimean War. He had part in winning the Battle of Inkermann, but was seriously wounded at the capture of the Malakoff, September 8, 1855, during the famous Siege of Sebastopol.



#### THE THIN RED LINE OF BALAKLAVA

This stirring picture shows the gallant siege of the Ninety-third Highlanders at the Battle of Balaklava in the Crimean War. This engagement was fought October 25, 1854, and was the scene of the famous "Charge of the Light Brigade," which Tennyson has immortalized in his poem of that name.





Giuseppe Garibaldi.



Victor Emmanuel II.



Leon Gambetta.



M. Armand Fallieres.



Adolphe Thiers.



Ferdinand De Lesseps.

**EMINENT MEN OF MODERN FRANCE**



### THE PEACE CONGRESS OF BERLIN

After the close of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, a Congress of European Powers was held at Berlin, June 13, 1878, to decide on the status of Turkey. Its purpose was inspired largely by the desire of preventing Russia from taking possession of Constantinople. One of its results was to give Great Britain control of the Island of Cyprus.





Otto Von Bismarck.



H. Carl B. Von Moltke.

MAKERS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE



*From the Painting by Yeom.*

### **NAPOLÉON III AT THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO**

The village of Solferino is made historic by two notable battles. In 1796 the French, under Napoleon I, conquered the Austrians at this little town; and in 1859 Napoleon III, with the Sardinian troops to help him, won another great victory over the Austrians.



**CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK AT THE BATTLE OF FROSCHWILLER**

The Prussians defeated the French under Marshal MacMahon at Froeschwiller on August 6, 1870. For some time the French kept up a fierce, but hopeless, struggle in the streets of the town until the dead and wounded lay thick and the gutters ran with blood.





Louis Kossuth of Hungary.



Thaddeus Kosciuszko of Poland.

**PATRIOTS WHO FAILED**



### KING EDWARD VII

He succeeded to the British throne January 22, 1901, after the death of his mother, Queen Victoria, and reigned until his death on May 6, 1910.



### THE REMNANT OF AN ARMY

The defeat of the French in the Battle of Waterloo was so complete that all organization was lost, many of the soldiers fleeing singly from the field. The picture shows one of the wounded stragglers dragging his exhausted horse away from the battle-field on a highway strewn with dead and wounded.





#### THE BATTLE OF ALMA IN THE CRIMEAN WAR

On the landing of the allied British, French and Turkish troops in the Crimea in September, 1854, Prince Menshikoff occupied the commanding heights with an army of 30,000 men. He was attacked by the allies and driven from his position in the great Battle of Alma. From that point the invaders marched to commence the celebrated Siege of Sebastopol.



#### **WELLINGTON AT WATERLOO GIVING THE WORD TO ADVANCE**

When the French staggered back in final despair, after hurling themselves a dozen times against the British ranks, the great British commander, Wellington, shouted "Let all the line advance," and Napoleon's shattered army was swept from the field.





*From Painting by A. C. Gou.*

### THE RETREAT OF NAPOLEON FROM WATERLOO

Napoleon recognized that his fate was sealed in the slaughter of his Old Guard at Waterloo. Pale, and despairing, he was led by one of his marshals from the scene of slaughter on the last of the many battlefields which he had marked on the map of Europe.





*Copyright by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

### RUSSIANS OFF FOR THE SCENE OF ACTION

A train load of the Czar's soldiers ready to start for the front. The Russian mobilization called to the colors more than five million men. Every able-bodied man between the ages of eighteen and forty-eight must serve and the work of the Empire is left to the women and old men.



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#### RUSSIAN SPIES WATCHING AUSTRIA'S MOVEMENTS

The great dirigible balloon "Russia," one of the fleet of Russian aircraft engaged in spying on the movements of the Austrian army. The photo shows the hanging car of the "Russia." The captain's bridge is in front above its engine room, which is forward on the lower deck. Two propellers are in front. The cabin is just back of where the pilot is seated in front. An officer is seen standing on the bridge.



*Trans-Atlantic News Service Co.*

#### A GERMAN BATTLESHIP CREW

The crew of the German armored cruiser "Moltke," consisting of nearly one thousand men. The ship's officers are to be seen on the bridge, and in the lower part of the picture can be seen the steel nets which are swung out and let down at night to protect the ship from torpedoes.





*Photo by Paul Thompson*

### **GREAT BRITAIN'S NEWEST TYPE OF SUBMARINES**

This formidable craft has three torpedo tubes and is equipped with twin propellers. There is plenty of space inside for the crew, and provision is made for sleeping accommodations. An additional feature consists of two guns carried on a disappearing platform.



### THE DUKE OF CHARTRES AT THE BATTLE OF JEMAPPES

Jemappes was the scene of a battle between the French and the Austrians in November, 1792. The Duke of Chartres, who commanded the center of attack, became King of France in 1830, and on account of his peaceful reign was known as the "Citizens' King." He abdicated the throne in 1848, just before Napoleon III became President of the newly formed Republic.



### THE BATTLE OF RIVOLI

Rivoli is a village of Venetia, Italy, on the western bank of the Adige; population, about 6,000. On January 14 and 15, 1797, Napoleon Bonaparte here, in his first campaign as commander-in-chief, gained a great victory over the Austrians commanded by Alvinczy, who lost 20,000 dead, wounded and prisoners.





#### BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR, OCTOBER 21, 1805

The greatest sea fight in history is represented by the above engraving. It was off Cape Trafalgar, southern coast of Spain, that Lord Nelson met and defeated the combined French and Spanish fleets, vastly his superior in number of vessels and men. This victory sounded the keynote in the decline of Napoleon's power and changed the destiny of Europe. "It is glorious to die in the moment of victory," Nelson fell and died as he heard the words telling him that the naval power of France and Spain was destroyed and he gained at once the double honor of victory and Westminster Abbey.



#### DEATH OF LORD NELSON

Towards the close of his hard fought battle with the combined French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar on October 21, 1805, Admiral Horatio Nelson was mortally wounded in the back by a musket ball. As he lay on deck gradually losing his strength from the wound, he was informed that he had gained a great victory, and died soon afterwards.





### THE BATTLE OF DRESDEN

Napoleon gained the last of his many victories against a large army of Russian, Prussian and Austrian allies at Dresden, August 26 and 27, 1813. Murat, the dashing cavalry leader, was the hero of the day. From this field Napoleon proceeded to his defeat at Leipzig, and two years later met his fate at Waterloo.





### MARSHAL NEY RETREATING FROM RUSSIA

Marshal Ney, who commanded the rearguard of Napoleon's army during the retreat from Russia, won imperishable fame by his brilliant and daring deeds. Had it not been for his courage and military skill it is doubtful if a man of that great army would have escaped from the frozen soil of the north.



### THE ORDER TO CHARGE AT FRIEDLAND

At the decisive battle of Friedland the Russian army was incautiously drawn up within a loop of the river. Napoleon quickly perceived their mistake. He captured the town, burned the bridges, and then used his whole army to drive the Russians into the stream.





#### BATTLE OF FRIEDLAND

The sanguinary engagement at Friedland, a small town in East Prussia, fought on June 14, 1807, ended in the defeat of the Russians under Bennigsen by Napoleon's army. It led to the Peace of Tilsit, and the end of a long and desperate war.





*Photo International News Service.*

### **GERMAN INFANTRY IN THE FIELD**

The soldiers are seen advancing on the enemy's lines in skirmish order, lying close to the ground for protection and to avoid observation. Note the soldier in the foreground who is carrying his rifle in his teeth.



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#### GERMAN ARTILLERY IN THE FIELD

This branch of the German army is supposed to be best in the world, with the possible exception of France. The field-gun shown here has an effective range of five miles and can be fired very rapidly.

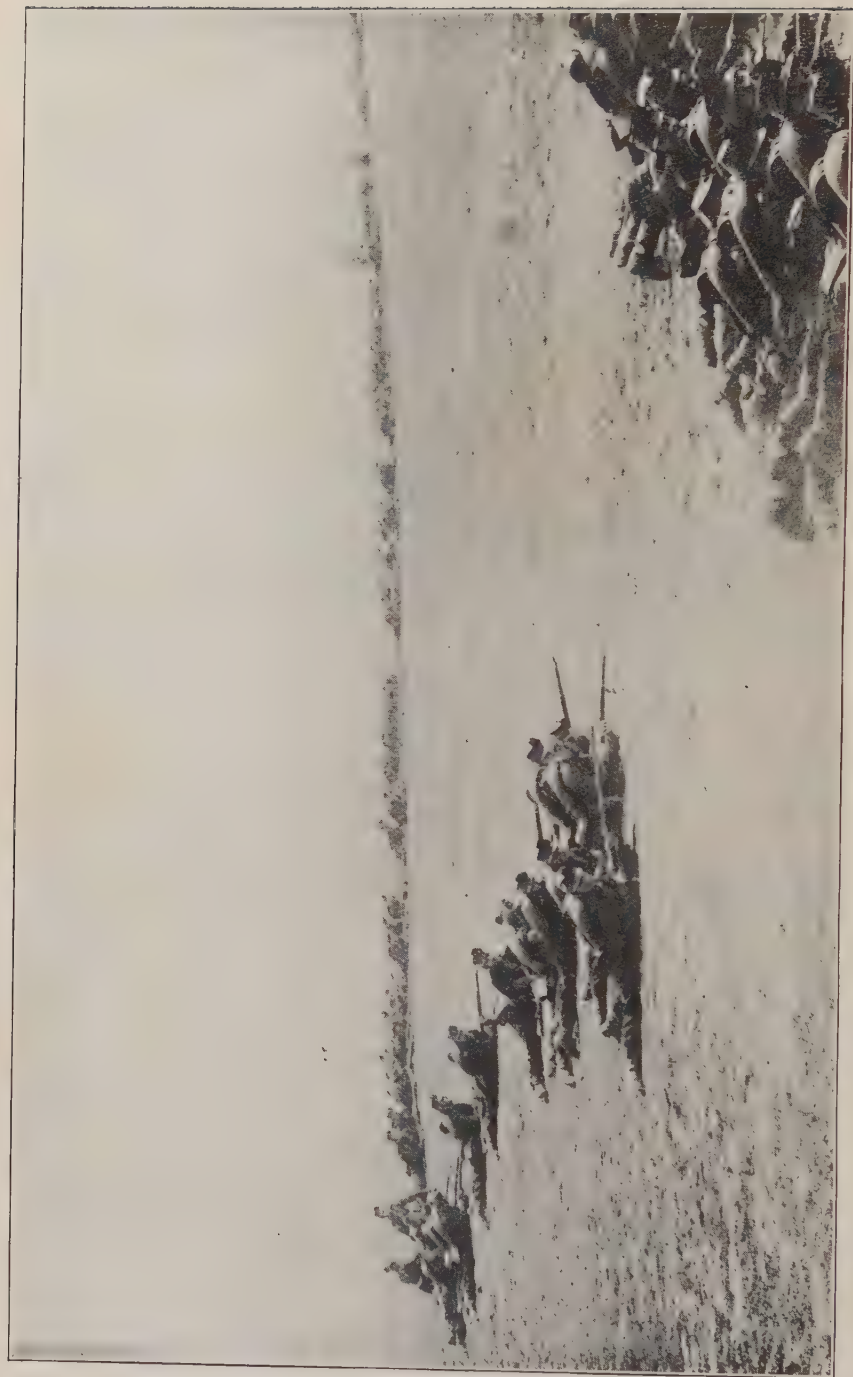


*Photo by Paul Thompson*

### A PART OF AUSTRIA'S NAVY

While the Austrian Navy does not rank with greatest naval powers of Britain and Germany it is of the greatest importance in the defense of Austria's coast line and ports on the Mediterranean.





*Copyright by Underwood and Underwood, N. Y.*

#### **AUSTRIAN INFANTRY IN THE FIELD**

These troops have been carefully trained for years in anticipation of this conflict. They are rated as among the world's finest soldiers.

## CHAPTER IV

### Pan-Slavism Versus Pan-Germanism

The Tremendous Issue Raised by Little Serbia—Russia's Part in the Issue—Fervor of the Common People of Russia—Slavic Influence in Germany and Austria.

PAN-SLAVISM against Pan-Germanism is the issue which little Serbia launched when the Emperor of all the Russias took up Serbia's quarrel with Austria-Hungary. Russia could want no better ground for war. Already the popularity of her aggressive big brother attitude to all the Slavs has been attested in St. Petersburg. It has been a long time since war has appealed with the same favor to so large a part of the Czar's people. Slavs there are aplenty to menace the allied German Powers, even if there were not allied French arms, on Germany's other flank and Britain's naval supremacy to cope with. Slavs have spread over all of eastern Europe, from the Arctic to the Adriatic and the Aegean Seas. Their continuity was broken into by an intrusion of Magyars, Finns, and Roumanians, leaving a northern section composed of North Russians, Poles, Czechs, and Slovaks, and a southern section comprising the main body of the Balkan people. For over a thousand years these Slavs have peopled Europe east of the Elbe River. And for centuries they kept the hordes of Cossacks, Turks and barbarians off Europe. Russia in those days was called "the nation of the sword." This will not be the first time that that sword has intervened for Serbia. After 400 years of vassalage to Turkey, the Serbs rebelled, in 1804, and then only Russian intervention saved them from defeat.

What renders the Russian menace so formidable in the present juncture is the unusual enthusiasm which is being displayed. Ordinarily, the huge population of 171,059,900 people is rather apathetic toward the attitude taken by their Emperor. At

## PAN-SLAVISM VERSUS PAN-GERMANISM

present, judging from the demonstrations reported from St. Petersburg, the Czar may reasonably count upon having behind him the 92,000,000 Slavs among his subjects. Moscow and Odessa have seen similar demonstrations of good feeling, and if, as it is asserted, the Czar himself assumes command as generalissimo of all the forces, the wave of enthusiasm is expected to sweep over the whole empire. Who knows what is the strength of the Russian bear, once he is roused in sullen fury? In the ten years following the Russo-Japanese War Russia has strengthened her army and navy, and has materially cut down the time required for the mobilization of her forces by eliminating many of the difficulties attendant upon transportation and equipment of troops. Her quiet advances toward becoming a Power to be feared by the most formidable European nation have been recognized in a vague way. Just what her potentialities are even Russia herself can only guess.

In considering the potential strength of the armies which Russia, in the course of a long war, might put in the field, it may be pointed out that military service in that empire of more than 171,000,000 people is universal and compulsory. Service under the flag begins at the age of twenty and lasts for twenty-three years. Usually it is proportioned as follows: Three or four years in the active army, fourteen or fifteen in the Zapas, or first reserve, and five years in the Opolchenie, or second reserve. For the Cossacks, those fighters who are a conspicuous element of Russia's military strength, there is hardly a cessation in discipline during their early manhood. Holding their lands by military tenure, they are liable for service for life. Furnishing their own equipment and horses—the Cossack is almost invariably a cavalryman—they pass through three periods of four years each, with diminishing duties, until they wind up in the reserve, which replaces casualties in time of war.

Russia's field army alone consists of three divisions—the army of European Russia, the army of Asia, already referred to,



## PAN-SLAVISM VERSUS PAN-GERMANISM

and the army of the Caucasus. The European Russian field army consists of twenty-seven army corps—each corps comprising, at fighting strength, about 36,000 men—and some twenty-odd cavalry divisions, of 4,000 horsemen each. With the field army of the Caucasus and the first and second reserve divisions of the Cossacks, the total would be brought to nearly 1,600,000 men. With the Asiatic army, the grand total, according to the latest figures, would give the Russian armies a fighting strength of 1,850,000 men, of whom it would be practicable to assemble, say, 1,200,000 in a single theatre of war. With respect to the armies which could be put in the field in time of war, there are conflicting estimates. It seems certain that Russia's war strength is more than 4,500,000 men, but, of course, the train service and the artillery for such a force is lacking. Two and three-quarter million men could probably be mustered at one time.

In the event of a prolonged war, in which the tide of affairs should put Russia strictly on the defensive, she would be less easily invaded than any large country of Europe. The very extent of her empire, protected by natural barriers at almost every side save where she touches Northeast Europe, would present almost insuperable difficulties to the invader. Napoleon paid dearly for his fortitude in pushing his columns into Moscow. The only conditions under which a repetition of such a feat is conceivable are not likely to be found during the sort of European struggle which now threatens. German and Austrian troops will be too much preoccupied with fighting within and along their boundaries to be able to give their undivided attention to such a problem as a successful invasion of Russia.

To make matters worse for the Austrian or German invader, their own provinces which march with Russia's are for the most part strongly disaffected. These Polish provinces, however unfriendly toward Russia, as one of the dismemberers of the Polish kingdom, are after all strongly bound in blood and speech to the Russian nation. The Poles are brother Slavs, and are like to

## CHAPTER V

### The Earthquake of Napoleonism

#### ITS EFFECT ON NATIONAL CONDITIONS WHICH RESULTED IN THE WAR OF 1914

Issues of the French Revolution—How Napoleon Won Fame—Emperor of the French—Europe in the Grasp of the Iron Hand—Nelson and Wellington, the Champions of England—Downfall and Exile of Napoleon—Waterloo and End of Napoleon's Career.

WHEN, after a weary climb, we find ourselves on the summit of a lofty mountain, and look back from that commanding altitude over the ground we have traversed what is it that we behold? The minor details of the scenery, many of which seemed large and important to us as we passed, are now lost to view, and we see only the great and imposing features of the landscape, the high elevations, the town-studded valleys, the deep and winding streams, the broad forests. It is the same when, from the summit of an age, we gaze backward over the plain of time. The myriad of petty happenings are lost to sight, and we see only the striking events, the critical epochs, the mighty crises through which the world has passed. These are the things that make true history, not the daily doings in the king's palace or the peasant's hut. What we should seek to observe and store up in our memories are the turning points in human events, the great thoughts which have ripened into noble deeds, the hands of might which have pushed the world forward in its career; not the trifling occurrences which signify nothing, the passing actions which have borne no fruit in human affairs. It is with such turning points, such critical periods in modern history, that we are here dealing; not to picture the passing bubbles on the stream of time, but to point out the great ships which have sailed up that

## THE EARTHQUAKE OF NAPOLEONISM

stream laden with a noble freight. This is history in its deepest and best aspect, and we have set our camera to photograph only the men who have made and the events which constitute history in the phase here outlined.

### THE AGE OF FEUDALISM

The Mediæval Age was the age of feudalism, that remarkable system of government based on military organization which held western Europe captive for centuries. The state was an army, the nobility its captains and generals, the king its commander-in-chief, the people its rank and file. As for the horde of laborers, they were hardly considered at all. They were the hewers of wood and drawers of water for the armed and fighting class, a base, down-trodden, enslaved multitude, destitute of rights and privileges, their only mission in the world to provide food for and pay taxes to their masters.

France, the country in which the feudal system had its birth, was the country in which it had the longest lease of life. It came down there to the verge of the nineteenth century with little relief from its terrible exactions. We see before us in that country the spectacle of a people steeped in misery, crushed by tyranny, robbed of all political rights, and without a voice to make their sufferings known, and of an aristocracy lapped in luxury, proud, vain, insolent, lavish with the people's money, ruthless with the people's blood, and blind to the specter of retribution which rose higher year by year before their eyes.

### ISSUES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

This era of injustice and oppression reached its climax in the closing years of the eighteenth century, and went down at length in that hideous nightmare of blood and terror known as the French Revolution. Frightful as this was, it was unavoidable. The pride and privilege of the aristocracy had the people by the throat, and only the sword or the guillotine could loosen their hold.



## THE EARTHQUAKE OF NAPOLEONISM

It was the need of money for the spendthrift throne that precipitated the Revolution. For years the indignation of the people had been growing and spreading; for years the authors of the nation had been adding fuel to the flame. The voices of Voltaire, Rousseau and a dozen others had been heard in advocacy of the rights of man, and the people were growing daily more restive under their load. But still the lavish waste of money wrung from the hunger and sweat of the people went on, until the king and his advisers found their coffers empty and were without hope of filling them without a direct appeal to the nation at large.

It was in 1788 that the fatal step was taken. Louis XVI, King of France, called a session of the States-General, the Parliament of the kingdom, which had not met for more than a hundred years. This body was composed of three classes, the representatives of the nobility, of the church, and of the people. In all earlier instances they had been docile to the mandate of the throne, and the monarch, blind to the signs of the times, had no thought but that this assembly would vote him the money he asked for, fix by law a system of taxation for his future supply, and dissolve at his command.

He was ignorant of the temper of the people. They had been given a voice at last, and were sure to take the opportunity to speak their mind. Their representatives, known as the Third Estate, were made up of bold, earnest, indignant men, who asked for bread and were not to be put off with a crust. They were twice as numerous as the representatives of the nobles and the clergy, and thus held control of the situation. They were ready to support the throne, but refused to vote a penny until the crying evils of the state were reformed. They broke loose from the other two Estates, established a separate parliament under the name of the National Assembly, and begun that career of revolution which did not cease until it had brought monarchy to an end in France and set all Europe aflame.

The Revolution grew, month by month and day by day. New and more radical laws were passed; moss-grown abuses were swept

## THE EARTHQUAKE OF NAPOLEONISM

away in an hour's sitting; the king, who sought to escape, was seized and held as a hostage; and war was boldly declared against Austria and Prussia, which showed a disposition to interfere. In November, 1792, the French army gained a brilliant victory at Jemmapes, in Belgium, which eventually led to the conquest of that kingdom by France. It was the first important event in the career of victory which in the coming years was to make France glorious in the annals of war.

The hostility of the surrounding nations added to the revolutionary fury in France. Armies were marching to the rescue of the king, and the unfortunate monarch was seized, reviled and insulted by the mob, and incarcerated in the prison called the Temple. The queen, Marie Antoinette, daughter of the Emperor of Austria, was likewise haled from the palace to the prison. In the following year, 1793, king and queen alike were taken to the guillotine and their royal heads fell into the fatal basket. The Revolution was consummated, the monarchy was at an end, France had fallen into the hands of the people, and from them it descended into the hands of a ruthless and blood-thirsty mob.

Meanwhile a foreign war was being waged. England had formed a coalition with most of the nations of Europe, and France was threatened by land with the troops of Holland, Prussia, Austria, Spain and Portugal, and by sea with the fleet of Great Britain. The incompetency of her assailants saved her from destruction. Her generals who lost battles were sent to prison or to the guillotine, the whole country rose as one man in defense, and a number of brilliant victories drove her enemies from her borders and gave the armies of France a position beyond the Rhine.

### HOW NAPOLEON WON FAME

These wars soon brought a great man to the front, Napoleon Bonaparte, a son of Corsica, whose career as a man of recognized ability began in 1794, when, under the orders of the National Convention—the successor of the National Assembly—he quelled

## CHAPTER VI

### The Congress of Vienna

#### RADICAL CHANGES IN THE MAP OF EUROPE

Membership of the Congress—Reaction the Order of the Day—Confederacy of the Bund—Prussia and Austria Expand—Changes in Italy and France—The Rights of Man.

THE terrific struggle of the "Hundred Days," which followed Napoleon's return from Elba and preceded his exile to St. Helena, made a serious break in the deliberations of the Congress of Vienna, convened by the victorious Powers for the purpose of recasting the map of Europe, which Napoleon had so sadly transformed, of setting aside the radical work of the French Revolution, and, in a word, of turning back the hands of the clock of time. Twenty-five years of such turmoil and volcanic disturbance as Europe had rarely known were at an end; the ruling powers were secure of their own again; the people, worn out with the long and bitter struggle, welcomed eagerly the return of rest and peace; and the emperors and kings deemed it a suitable time to throw overboard the load of new ideas under which the European "Ship of State" seemed to them likely to founder.

#### MEMBERSHIP OF THE CONGRESS

The Congress of Vienna was, in its way, a brilliant gathering. It included, mainly as handsome ornaments, the emperors of Russia and Austria, the kings of Prussia, Denmark, Bavaria and Würtemberg; and, as its working element, the leading statesmen of Europe, notably the English Castlereagh and Wellington, the French Talleyrand, the Prussian Hardenberg, and the Austrian Metternich. Checked in its deliberations for a time by Napoleon's fierce hundred days' death struggle, it quickly settled down to work



## THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

again, having before it the vast task of undoing the mighty results of a quarter of a century of revolution. For the French Revolution had broadened into a European revolution, with Napoleon and his armies as its great instruments. The whole continent had been sown thickly during the long era of war with the Napoleonic ideas, and a crop of new demands had grown up, not easily to be uprooted.

The exile of Napoleon to Elba had been followed by a treaty at Paris, in which the widely expanded borders of that country were forced back within their original limits, France surrendering fifty-eight fortified places still held by its troops, 12,000 pieces of artillery, and a considerable number of warships. After the final Napoleon downfall at Waterloo a second treaty of Paris had been signed November 20, 1815, through which France lost still more heavily, more territory was taken, a war indemnity of over 1,000,000,000 francs was exacted, and arrangements were made for five years of foreign occupation.

### REACTION THE ORDER OF THE DAY

Reaction was the order of the day in the Vienna Congress. The shaken power of the monarchs was to be restored, the map of Europe to be re-adjusted, the people to be put back into the submissive condition which they occupied before that eventful 1789, when the States-General of France began its momentous work of destroying the equilibrium of the world. As for the people, deeply infected as they were with the new ideas of liberty and the rights of man, which had made their way far beyond the borders of France, they were for the time worn out with strife and turmoil, and settled back supinely to enjoy the welcome era of rest, leaving their fate in the hands of the astute plenipotentiaries who were gathered in their wisdom at Vienna.

### CONFEDERACY OF THE BUND

These worthy tools of the monarchs had an immense task before them—too large a one, as it proved. It was easy to talk

## THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

about restoring to the nations the territory they had possessed before Napoleon began his career as a map-maker; but it was not easy to do so except at the cost of new wars. The territories of many of the powers had been added to by the French emperor, and they were not likely to give up their new possessions without a vigorous protest. In Germany the changes had been enormous. Napoleon had found there more than three hundred separate states, some no larger than a small American county, yet each possessed of the paraphernalia of a court and sovereign, a capital, an army and a public debt. And these were feebly combined into the phantasm known as the Holy Roman Empire. When Napoleon had finished his work this empire had ceased to exist except as a tradition, and the great galaxy of sovereign states was reduced to thirty-nine. These included the great dominions of Austria and Prussia; the smaller states of Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover and Würtemberg, which Napoleon had raised into kingdoms; and a vastly reduced group of minor states. The work done here it was somewhat dangerous to meddle with. The small potentates of Germany were like so many bull-dogs, glaring jealously across their new borders, and ready to fly at one another's throats at any suggestion of a change. The utmost they would yield was to be united into a confederacy called the *Bund*, with a Diet meeting at Frankfurt. But as the delegates to the Diet were given no law-making power, the *Bund* became an empty farce.

### RUSSIA AND AUSTRIA EXPAND

The great powers took care to regain their lost possessions, or to replace them with an equal amount of territory. Prussia and Austria spread out again to their old size, though they did not cover quite the old ground. Most of their domains in Poland were given up, Prussia getting new territory in West Germany and Austria in Italy. Their provinces in Poland were ceded to Alexander of Russia, who added to them some of his own Polish dominions, and formed a new kingdom of Poland, he being its king. So in a shadowy

## THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

way Poland was brought to life again. England got for her share in the spoils a number of French and Dutch colonies, including Malta and the Cape Colony in Africa. Thus each of the great Powers repaid itself for its losses.

In Italy a variety of changes were made. The Pope got back the States of the Church; Tuscany was restored to its king; the same was the case with Naples, King Murat being driven from his throne and put to death. Piedmont, increased by the Republic of Genoa, was restored to the king of Sardinia. Some smaller states were formed, as Parma, Modena and Lucca. Finally Lombardy and Venice, much the richest regions of Italy, were given to Austria, which country was made the dominant power in the Italian peninsula.

Louis XVIII, the Bourbon king, brother of Louis XVI, who had reigned while Napoleon was at Elba, came back to the throne of France. The title of Louis XVII was given to the poor boy, son of Louis XVI, who died from cruel treatment in the dungeons of the Revolution. In Spain the feeble Ferdinand returned to the throne which he had given up without a protest at the command of Napoleon. Portugal was given a monarch of its old dynasty. All seemed to have floated back into the old conditions again.

### THE RIGHTS OF MAN

As for the rights of the people, what had become of them? Had they been swept away and the old wrongs of the people been brought back? Not quite. The frenzied enthusiasm for liberty and human rights of the past twenty-five years could not go altogether for nothing. The lingering relics of feudalism had vanished, not only from France but from all Europe, and no monarch or congress could bring them back again. In its place the principles of democracy had spread from France far among the peoples of Europe. The principle of class privilege had been destroyed in France, and that of social equality had replaced it. The principle of the liberty of the individual, especially in his religious opinions,



## CHAPTER VII

### The Holy Alliance and Its Unholy Work

#### EVENTS LEADING TO THE MONROE DOCTRINE AND THE FOREIGN POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Significance of the Name—Revolution in Spain and Naples—Austria Restores Autocracy in Naples—France Brings Back Tyranny to Spain—Greece Strikes for Freedom—The Holy Alliance Leads to the Monroe Doctrine.

THE plan devised by the Congress of Vienna for the suppression of revolution by the restless population of Europe, wrought to desperation by the effort of the imperial autocrats to rob them of the liberties which they had for a brief period enjoyed, was the establishment of an association of monarchs which adopted the grandiloquent title of the Holy Alliance. It included Alexander of Russia, Francis of Austria, and Frederick William of Prussia, men whose ideas of holiness embraced the recognition of their august majesties as the deities of a new religion.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NAME

They proposed to rule in accordance with the precepts of the Bible, to stand by each other in a true fraternity, to rule their subjects as loving parents, and to see that peace, justice, and religion should flourish in their dominions. An ideal scheme it was, but its promulgators soon won the name of hypocrites and the hatred of those whom they were to deal with on the principle of love and brotherhood. Reaction was the watchword, absolute sovereignty the purpose, the eradication of the doctrine of popular sovereignty the sentiment which animated these powerful monarchs; and the Holy Alliance meant practically the determination to unite their forces against democracy and revolution wherever they should show themselves.

## THE HOLY ALLIANCE AND ITS UNHOLY WORK

It was not long before the people began to move. The attempt to re-establish absolute governments shook them out of their sluggish quiet. Revolution lifted its head again in the face of the Holy Alliance, its first field being Spain. Ferdinand VII, on returning to his throne, had but one purpose in his weak mind, which was to rule as an autocrat, as his ancestors had done. He swore to govern according to a constitution, and began his reign with a perjury. The patriots had formed a constitution during his absence, and this he set aside and never replaced by another. On the contrary, he set out to abolish all the reforms made by Napoleon, and to restore the monasteries, to bring back the Inquisition, and to prosecute the patriots. Five years of this reaction made the state of affairs in Spain so intolerable that the liberals refused to submit to it any longer. In 1820 they rose in revolt, and the king, a coward under all his show of bravery, at once gave way and restored the constitution he had set aside.

### REVOLUTION IN SPAIN AND NAPLES

The shock given the Holy Alliance by the news from Spain was quickly followed by another coming from Naples. The Bourbon king who had been replaced upon the throne of that country, another Ferdinand, was one of the most despicable men of his not greatly esteemed race. His government, while weak, was harshly oppressive. But it did not need a revolution to frighten this royal dastard. A mere general celebration of the victory of the liberals in Spain was enough, and in his alarm he hastened to give his people a constitution similar to that which the Spaniards had gained.

These awkward affairs sadly disturbed the equanimity of those statesmen who fancied that they had fully restored the divine right of kings. Metternich, the Austrian advocate of reaction, hastened to call a new Congress, in 1820, and another in 1821. The question he put to these assemblies was, Should revolution be permitted, or should Europe interfere in Spain and Naples, and

## CHAPTER VIII

### The Revolution of 1830

#### ITS DISINTEGRATING EFFECT ON NATIONAL CONDITIONS

Reaction Under Charles X—"Down with the Bourbons"—Louis Philippe on the Throne—Holland and Belgium Divide—Poland in Arms.

THE work of the Holy Alliance outside of Greece had been measurably complete. Revolution, wherever else in Europe it ventured to show its head, had been ruthlessly put down. But though complete in the countries concerned, it was destined to prove temporary. The blessing of liberty, once enjoyed, could not so easily be taken away.

The people merely bided their time. The good seed sown could not fail to bear fruit in its season. The spirit of revolution was in the air, and any attempt to rob the people of the degree of liberty which they enjoyed was very likely to precipitate a revolt against the tyranny of courts and kings. It came at length in France, that country being the ripest among the nations for revolution. Louis XVIII, an easy, good-natured old soul, of kindly disposition towards the people, passed from life in 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, Count of Artois, as Charles X.

#### REACTION UNDER CHARLES X

The new king had been the head of the ultra-royalist faction, an advocate of despotism and feudalism, and quickly doubled the hate which the people bore him. Louis XVIII had been liberal in his policy, and had given increased privileges to the people. Under Charles reaction set in. A vast sum of money was voted to the nobles to repay their losses during the Revolution. Steps were taken to muzzle the press and gag the universities. This was more than the Chamber of Deputies was willing to do, and



## THE REVOLUTION OF 1830

it was dissolved. But the tyrant at the head of the government went on, blind to the signs in the air, deaf to the people's voice. If he could not get laws from the Chamber, he would make them himself in the old arbitrary fashion, and on July 26, 1830, he issued, under the advice of his prime minister, four decrees, which limited the list of voters and put an end to the freedom of the press. Practically, the constitution was set aside, the work of the Revolution ignored, and absolutism re-established in France.

### "DOWN WITH THE BOURBONS"

King Charles had taken a step too far. He did not know the spirit of the French. In a moment Paris blazed into insurrection. Tumult arose on every side. Workmen and students paraded the streets with enthusiastic cheers for the constitution. But under their voices there were soon heard deeper and more ominous cries. "Down with the ministers!" came the demand. And then, as the throng increased and grew more violent, arose the revolutionary slogan, "Down with the Bourbons!" The infatuated old king was amusing himself in his palace of St. Cloud, and did not discover that the crown was tottering upon his head. He knew that the people of Paris had risen, but looked upon it as a passing ebullition of French temper. He did not awake to the true significance of the movement until he heard that there had been fighting between his troops and the people, that many of the citizens lay dead in the streets, and that the soldiers had been driven from the city, which remained in the hands of the insurrectionists.

Then the old imbecile, who had fondly fancied that the Revolution of 1789 could be set aside by a stroke of his pen, made frantic efforts to lay the demon he had called into life. He hastily canceled the tyrannical decrees. Finding that this would not have the desired effect, he abdicated the throne in favor of his grandson. But all was of no avail. France had had enough of him and his house. His envoys were turned back from the gates of Paris unheard. Remembering the fate of Louis XVI, his

## CHAPTER IX

### Russia and the Crimean War

#### OUTCOME OF SLAVIC AMBITIONS IN THE NEAR EAST

Turkey the Sick Man of Europe—Russia Craves Constantinople—Outbreak of the Crimean War—Siege of Sebastopol—Charge of the Light Brigade—Result of the War.

**A**MONG the most interesting phases of nineteenth-century history is that of the conflict between Russia and Turkey, a struggle for dominion that came down from the preceding centuries, and still seems only temporarily laid aside for final settlement in the years to come. In the eighteenth century the Turks proved quite able to hold their own against all the power of Russia and all the armies of Catharine the Great, and they entered the nineteenth century with their ancient dominion largely intact. But they were declining in strength while Russia was growing, and long before 1900 the empire of the Sultan would have become the prey of the Czar had not the other powers of Europe come to the rescue. The Czar Nicholas designated the Sultan as "the sick man" of Europe, and such he and his empire have truly become.

#### TURKEY THE "SICK MAN" OF EUROPE

The ambitious designs of Russia found abundant warrant in the cruel treatment of the Christian people of Turkey. A number of Christian kingdoms lay under the Sultan's rule, in the south inhabited by Greeks, in the north by Slavs; their people treated always with harshness and tyranny; their every attempt at revolt repressed with savage cruelty. We have seen how the Greeks rebelled against their oppressors in 1821, and, with the aid of Europe, won their freedom in 1829. Stirred by this struggle,

## RUSSIA AND THE CRIMEAN WAR

Russia declared war against Turkey in 1828, and in the treaty of peace signed at Adrianople in 1829 secured not only the independence of Greece, but a large degree of home rule for the northern principalities of Servia, Moldavia, and Wallachia. Turkey was forced in a measure to loosen her grip on Christian Europe. But the Russians were not satisfied with this. They had got next to nothing for themselves. England and the other Western powers, fearful of seeing Russia in possession of Constantinople, had forced her to release the fruits of her victory. It was the first step in that jealous watchfulness of England over Constantinople which was to have a more decided outcome in later years. The new-born idea of maintaining the balance of power in Europe stood in Russia's way, the nations of the West viewing in alarm the threatening growth of the great Muscovite Empire.

### RUSSIA CRAVES CONSTANTINOPLE

The ambitious Czar Nicholas looked upon Turkey as his destined prey, and waited with impatience a sufficient excuse to send his armies again to the Balkan Peninsula, whose mountain barrier formed the great natural bulwark of Turkey in the north. Though the Turkish government at this time avoided direct oppression of its Christian subjects, the fanatical Mohammedans were difficult to restrain, and the robbery and murder of Christians was of common occurrence. A source of hostility at length arose from the question of protecting these ill-treated peoples. By favor of old treaties the Czar claimed a certain right to protect the Christians of the Greek faith. France assumed a similar protectorate over the Roman Catholics of Palestine, but the greater number of Greek Christians in the Holy Land, and the powerful support of the Czar, gave those the advantage in the frequent quarrels which arose in Jerusalem between the pilgrims from the East and the West.

Nicholas, instigated by his advantage in this quarter, determined to declare himself the protector of all the Christians in the



## CHAPTER X

### Europe in Arms in 1848

#### OUTBREAK OF NINETEENTH CENTURY DEMOCRACY

Liberty, Equality and Fraternity—Reform Outbreak in Paris—The Second French Republic—Revolution in Berlin—War in Italy—The Revolt in Hungary.

**T**HE revolution of 1830 did not bring peace and quiet to France nor to Europe. In France the people grew dissatisfied with their new monarch; in Europe generally they demanded a greater share of liberty. Louis Philippe delayed to extend the suffrage; he used his high position to add to his great riches; he failed to win the hearts of the French, and was widely accused of selfishness and greed. There were risings of legitimists in favor of the Bourbons, while the republican element was opposed to monarchy. No less than eight attempts were made to remove the king by assassination—all of them failures, but they showed the disturbed state of public feeling. Liberty, equality, fraternity became the watchwords of the working classes, socialistic ideas arose and spread, and the industrial element of the various nations became allied in one great body of revolutionists known as the "Internationalists."

#### LIBERTY, EQUALITY AND FRATERNITY

In Germany the demand of the people for political rights grew until it reached a crisis. The radical writings of the "Young Germans," the stirring songs of their poets, the bold utterances of the press, the doctrines of the "Friends of Light" among the Protestants and of the "German Catholics" among the Catholics, all went to show that the people were deeply dissatisfied alike with the state and the church. They were rapidly arousing from

## EUROPE IN ARMS IN 1848

their sluggish acceptance of the work of the Congress of Vienna of 1815, and the spirit of liberty was in the air.

The King of Prussia, Frederick William IV, saw danger ahead. He became king in 1840 and lost no time in trying to make his rule popular by reforms. An edict of toleration was issued, the sittings of the courts were opened to the public, and the Estates of the provinces were called to meet in Berlin. In the convening of a Parliament he had given the people a voice. The Estates demanded freedom of the press and of the state with such eloquence and energy that the king dared not resist them. The people had gained a great step in their progress towards liberty.

In Italy also the persistent demands of the people met with an encouraging response. The Pope, Pius IX, extended the freedom of the press, gave a liberal charter to the City of Rome, and began the formation of an Italian confederacy. In Sicily a revolutionary outbreak took place, and the King of Naples was compelled to give his people a constitution and a parliament. His example was followed in Tuscany and Sardinia. The tyrannical Duke of Modena was forced to fly from the vengeance of his people, and the throne of Parma became vacant by the death in 1847 of Maria Louisa, the widow of Napoleon Bonaparte, a woman little loved and less respected.

The Italians were filled with hope by these events. Freedom and the unity of Italy loomed up before their eyes. Only two obstacles stood in their way, the Austrians and the Jesuits, and both of these were bitterly hated. Gioberti, the enemy of the Jesuits, was greeted with cheers, under which might be heard harsh cries of "Death to the Germans."

Such was the state of affairs at the beginning of 1848. The measure of liberty granted the people only whetted their appetite for more, and over all Western Europe rose an ominous murmur, the voice of the people demanding the rights of which they had so long been deprived. In France this demand was growing dangerously insistent; in Paris, the center of European revolution,

## CHAPTER XI

### The Ambition of Louis Napoleon

#### THE FINAL OVERTHROW OF NAPOLEONISM

The Coup d'état of 1851—From President to Emperor—The War in Sardinia—Magenta and Solferino—The Invasion of Mexico.

THE name of Napoleon is a name to conjure with in France. Two generations after the fall of Napoleon the Great, the people of that country had practically forgotten the misery he had brought them, and remembered only the glory with which he had crowned the name of France. When, then, a man whom we may fairly designate as Napoleon the Small offered himself for their suffrages, they cast their votes almost unanimously in his favor.

Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, to give this personage his full name, was a son of Louis Bonaparte, once king of Holland, and Hortense de Beauharnais, and had been recognized by Napoleon as, after his father, the direct successor to the throne. This he made strenuous efforts to obtain, hoping to dethrone Louis Philippe and install himself in his place. In 1836, with a few followers, he made an attempt to capture Strasbourg. His effort failed and he was arrested and transported to the United States. In 1839 he published a work entitled "Napoleonic Ideas," which was an apology for the ambitious acts of the first Napoleon.

The growing unpopularity of Louis Philippe tempted him at this time to make a second attempt to invade France. He did it in a rash way almost certain to end in failure. Followed by about fifty men, and bringing with him a tame eagle, which was expected to perch upon his banner as the harbinger of victory, he sailed from England in August, 1840, and landed at Boulogne. This desperate and foolish enterprise proved a complete failure. The



## THE AMBITION OF LOUIS NAPOLEON

soldiers whom the would-be usurper expected to join his standard arrested him, and he was tried for treason by the House of Peers. This time he was not dealt with so leniently as before, but was sentenced to imprisonment for life and was confined in the Castle of Ham. From this fortress he escaped in disguise in May, 1846, and made his way to England.

The revolution of 1848 gave the restless and ambitious adventurer a more promising opportunity. He returned to France, was elected to the National Assembly, and on the adoption of the republican constitution offered himself as a candidate for the presidency of the new republic. And now the magic of the name of Napoleon told. General Cavaignac, his chief competitor, was supported by the solid men of the country, who distrusted the adventurer; but the people rose almost solidly in his support, and he was elected president for four years by 5,562,834 votes, against 1,469,166 for Cavaignac.

The new President of France soon showed his ambition. He became engaged in a contest with the Assembly and aroused the distrust of the Republicans by his autocratic tones. In 1849 he still further offended the Democratic party by sending an army to Rome, which put an end to the republic in that city. He sought to make his cabinet officers the pliant instruments of his will, and thus caused De Tocqueville, the celebrated author, who was minister for foreign affairs, to resign. "We were not the men to serve him on those terms," said De Tocqueville, at a later time.

The new-made president was feeling his way to imperial dignity. He could not forget that his illustrious uncle had made himself emperor, and his ambition instigated him to the same course. A violent controversy arose between him and the Assembly, which body passed a law restricting universal suffrage, and thus reducing the popular support of the president. In June, 1850, it increased his salary at his request, but granted the increase only for one year—an act of distrust which proved a new source of discord.

## CHAPTER XII

### Garibaldi and Italian Unity

#### POWER OF AUSTRIA BROKEN

"God and the People"—The Patriotism of Garibaldi—The Invasion of Sicily—Victor Emmanuel in Naples—Cavour—Union of All Italy.

FROM the time of the fall of the Roman Empire until late in the nineteenth century, a period of some fourteen hundred years, Italy remained disunited, divided up between a series of states, small and large, hostile and peaceful, while its territory was made the battle-field of the surrounding powers, the helpless prey of Germany, France, and Spain. Even the strong hand of Napoleon failed to bring it unity, and after his fall its condition was worse than before, for Austria held most of the north and exerted a controlling power over the remainder of the peninsula, so that the fair form of liberty fled in dismay from its shores.

But the work of Napoleon had inspired the patriots of Italy with a new sentiment, that of union. Before the Napoleonic era the thought of a united Italy scarcely existed, and patriotism meant adherence to Sardinia, Naples, or some other of the many kingdoms and duchies. After that era union became the watchword of the revolutionists, who felt that the only hope of giving Italy a position of dignity and honor among the nations lay in making it one country under one ruler. The history of the nineteenth century in Italy is the record of the attempt to reach this end, and its successful accomplishment. And on that record the names of two men most prominently appear, Mazzini, the indefatigable conspirator, and Garibaldi, the valorous fighter; to whose names should be added that of the eminent statesman, Count Cavour, and that of the man who reaped the benefit of their patriotic labors, Victor Emmanuel, the first king of united Italy.

## GARIBALDI AND ITALIAN UNITY

The basis of the revolutionary movements in Italy was the secret political association known as the Carbonari, formed early in the nineteenth century and including members of all classes in its ranks. In 1814 this powerful society projected a revolution in Naples, and in 1820 it was strong enough to invade Naples with an army and force from the king an oath to observe the new constitution which it had prepared. The revolution was put down in the following year by the Austrians, acting as the agents of the "Holy Alliance"—the compact of Austria, Prussia and Russia.

[ An ordinance was passed, condemning any one who should attend a meeting of the Carbonari to capital punishment. But the society continued to exist, despite this severe enactment, and has been at the basis of many of the outbreaks that have taken place in Italy since 1820. Mazzini, Garibaldi, and all the leading patriots were members of this powerful organization, which was daring enough to condemn Napoleon III to death, and almost to succeed in his assassination, for his failure to live up to his obligations as a member of the society.

Giuseppe Mazzini, a native of Genoa, became a member of the Carbonari in 1830. His activity in revolutionary movements caused him soon after to be proscribed, and in 1831 he sought Marseilles, where he organized a new political society called "Young Italy," whose watchword was "God and the People," and whose basic principle was the union of the several states and kingdoms into one nation, as the only true foundation of Italian liberty. This purpose he avowed in his writings and pursued through exile and adversity with inflexible constancy, and it is largely due to the work of this earnest patriot that Italy today is a single kingdom instead of a medley of separate states. Only in one particular did he fail. His persistent purpose was to establish a republic, not a monarchy.

While Mazzini was thus working with his pen, his compatriot, Giuseppe Garibaldi, was working as earnestly with his sword. This daring soldier, a native of Nice and reared to a life on the sea,



## CHAPTER XIII

### The Expansion of Germany

#### BEGINNINGS OF MODERN WORLD POWER

Growth of Prussia—Seizure of Danish Provinces—Austrian Defeat at Sadowa—The German States Combine—Supremacy of Prussia.

THE effort made in 1848 to unify Germany had failed for two reasons—first, because its promoters had not sufficiently clear and precise ideas, and, secondly, because they lacked material strength. Until 1859 reaction against novelties and their advocates dominated in Germany and even Prussia as well as in Austria. The Italian war, as was easily foreseen, and as wary counselors had told Napoleon III, revived the in-favor-of-unity agitation beyond the Rhine. Since September 16, 1859, it had its center in the national circle of Frankfort and its manifesto in the proclamation which it issued on September 4, 1860, a proclamation whose terms, though in moderate forms, clearly announced the design of excluding Austria from Germany. It was the object of those favoring unity, but with more decision than in 1848, to place the collection of the German States under Prussia's direction. The accession of a new king, William I, who was already in advance called William the Conqueror, was going to bring this project to a successful issue. The future German emperor's predecessor, Frederick William IV, with the same ambition as his brother, had too many prejudices and too much confusion in his mind to be capable of realizing it. Becoming insane towards the close of 1857, he had to leave the government to William, who, officially regent after October 7, 1858, became king on January 2, 1861.

The new sovereign was almost sixty-four years old. The son

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of Frederick William III and Queen Louisa, while yet a child he had witnessed the disasters of his country and his home, and then as a young man had had his first experience of arms towards the close of the Napoleonic wars. Obligated to flee during the revolt of 1848, he had afterwards, by his pro-English attitude at the time of the Crimean war, won the sympathies of the Liberals, who joyfully acclaimed his accession. To lower him to the rank of a party leader was to judge him erroneously. William I was above all a Prussian prince, serious, industrious, and penetrated with a sense of his duties to the state, the first of which, according to the men of his house, has ever been to aggrandize it; and he was also imbued with the idea that the state was essentially incarnate in him. "I am the first king," he said at his coronation, "to assume power since the throne has been surrounded with modern institutions, *but I do not forget that the crown comes from God.*" He had none of the higher talents that mark great men, but he possessed the two essential qualities of the head of a state—firmness and judgment. He showed this by the way in which he chose and supported those who built up his greatness, and this merit is rarer than is generally supposed. A soldier above all, he saw that Prussia's ambitions could be realized only with a powerful army. Advised by Von Moltke, the army's chief of staff since 1858, and Von Roon, the great administrator, who filled the office of minister of war, he changed the organization of 1814, which had become insufficient. Instead of brigades formed in war time half of men in active service and half of reserves, there were regiments recruited by a three (instead of a two) years' service and reinforced in case of need by the two following classes (reserved). The landwehr, divided into two classes (twenty-five to thirty-two years and thirty-two to thirty-nine), was grouped separately. This system gave seven hundred thousand trained soldiers—Prussia had seventeen million inhabitants—or more than either France or Austria had. The armament was also superior. Frederick William I had already said that the first result to be obtained in this direction

## CHAPTER XIV

### The Franco-Prussian War

#### BIRTH OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND THE FRENCH REPUBLIC

Causes of Hostile Relations—France Declares War with Prussia—Defeat of the French Armies—The Catastrophe of Sedan—The Siege of Paris—End of the War.

**I**N 1866 the war between the two great powers of Germany, in which most of the smaller powers were concerned, led to more decided measures, in the absorption by Prussia of the weaker states, the formation of a North German League among the remaining states of the north, and the offensive and defensive alliance with Prussia of the south German states. By the treaty of peace with Austria, that power was excluded from the German League, and Prussia remained the dominant power in Germany. A constitution for the League was adopted in 1867, providing for a Diet, or legislative council of the League, elected by the direct votes of the people, and an army, which was to be under the command of the Prussian king and subject to the military laws of Prussia. Each state in the League bound itself to supply a specified sum for the support of the army.

Here was a union with a backbone—an army and a budget—and Bismarck had done more in the five years of his ministry in forming a united Germany than his predecessor had done in fifty years. But the idea of union and alliance between kindred states was then widely in the air. Such a union had been practically completed in Italy, and Hungary in 1867 regained her ancient rights, which had been taken from her in 1849, being given a separate government, with Francis Joseph, the emperor of Austria, as its king. It was natural that the common blood of the Germans should lead them to a political confederation, and equally natural



## THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

that Prussia, which so overshadowed the smaller states in strength, should be the leading element in the alliance.

Yet, though Prussia had concluded military agreements with the states of southern Germany and held them also by means of the Zollverein, this was far from bringing about a peaceful realization of unity. The southern states, not merely the sovereigns only, but the peoples, have always had little taste for Prussian leadership, and after 1866 this feeling was very visible. For this reason Bismarck felt it important to instigate a war against France. Union against the foreigner was to complete political unity. War came near breaking out in 1867 in relation to Luxembourg. Napoleon III keenly desired to have at least that compensation for Prussia's aggrandizements, and the king of Holland was disposed to cede his rights for ninety millions. But Bismarck, after having secretly approved of the bargain, officially declared his opposition to it (April 3, 1867). Napoleon, hampered at one and the same time by the Paris exposition of that year and by the bad condition of his army, was too happy to escape from embarrassment (for the Prussians did not wish to evacuate the fortress of Luxembourg) by obtaining with the aid of the other Powers that the little duchy be declared neutral and the walls of its capital destroyed.

In spite of this arrangement, it remained certain to everybody that a conflict would break out in a short time between France and Prussia. We have seen what reasons Bismarck had for such a war. Napoleon III's government, justly censured by opinion for the weakness which it had shown in 1866 was ready to fall into the first trap its adversary would set for it. The same weakness prevented it from adopting the indispensable military measures, as it should have done. The enemies of power were declaiming against standing armies, which they declared useless. The government deputies were afraid to dissatisfy their constituents by aggravating the burdens of the service. Yet Marshal Niel, minister of war, tried to adopt measures with a view to the inevitable war. He caused to be elaborated a plan of campaign, a plan of trans-

## CHAPTER XV

### Bismarck and the New German Empire

#### BUILDING THE BULWARKS OF THE TWENTIETH-CENTURY NATION

Bismarck as a Statesman—Uniting the German States—William I Crowned at Versailles—Work of the Great Statesman—William II Takes the Reins of Empire.

**T**HROUGHOUT the various events narrated in the two preceding chapters the hand of Bismarck was everywhere visible. He had proved himself a statesman of the highest powers, and these powers were devoted without stint to the aggrandizement of Prussia. As for the surrounding nations and their rights and immunities, these did not count as against his policies. Conscience did not trouble him. The slaughter of thousands of men on the battle-field did not disturb his equanimity. He was unalterably fixed in his purposes, unscrupulous in the means employed, shrewd, keen and far-sighted in his measures, Europe being to him but a great chess-board, on which his hand moved kings, knights, and pawns with mechanical inflexibility. To him the end justified the means, however lacking in justice or mercy these means might prove.

Denmark was despoiled to extend the territory of Prussia to the north. Austria, Bismarck's unwary accomplice in this act of spoliation, was robbed of its share of the spoils, and drawn into a war in which it met with disastrous defeat, the prestige of Prussia being vastly increased on the field of Sadowa. Subsequently came the great struggle with France, fomented by his wiles and ending in triumph for his policies. So far all had gone well for him, the final outcome of his schemes resulting in the unification of the minor German states into one powerful empire.

# BISMARCK AND THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE

## BISMARCK AS A STATESMAN

It was in the formation of the modern German Empire that the far-sighted plans of Bismarck culminated. King William was a tool in his hands for this purpose, moving as he suggested and doing as he wished. The states of Germany, aside from Austria, had actively participated in the recent war, the steps towards unification which had been taken during the few preceding years having now reached the point in which a complete amalgamation might be effected.

The Holy Roman Empire, which had lasted throughout the medieval period in some phase of strength and power, at times predominant, at times little more than a title, had received its death-blow from the hands of Napoleon and vanished from the historic stage. It was Bismarck's design to restore the German Empire—not the old, moth-eaten fiction of the past, but an entirely new one—and give Prussia the position it had earned, that of the great center of German racial unity. In this project Austria, long at the head of the old empire, was to have no part, the imperial dignity being conferred upon the venerable King William of Prussia, a monarch whose birth dated back to the eighteenth century, and who had lived throughout the Napoleonic wars.

## WORK OF UNITING THE GERMAN STATES

Near the close of 1870 Bismarck concluded treaties with the ambassadors of the Southern States, in which they agreed to accept the constitution of the North German Union. These treaties were ratified, after some opposition from the "patriots" of the lower house, by the legislatures of the four states involved. The next step in the proceeding was a suggestion from the king of Bavaria to the other princes that the imperial crown of Germany should be offered to King William of Prussia.

When the North German Diet at Berlin had given its consent to the new constitution, a congratulatory address was despatched to the Prussian monarch at Versailles. It announced to the aged



## CHAPTER XVI

### Gladstone as an Apostle of Reform

#### GREAT BRITAIN BECOMES A WORLD POWER

Growing Prestige of Great Britain—Gladstone and Disraeli—Gladstone's Work for Liberalism—Reform Bill of 1866—Irish Home Rule Movement.

**I**T is a fact of much interest, as showing the growth of the human mind, that William Ewart Gladstone, the great advocate of English Liberalism, made his first political speech in vigorous opposition to the Reform Bill of 1831. He was then a student at Oxford University, but this boyish address had such an effect upon his hearers, that Bishop Wordsworth felt sure the speaker would "one day rise to be Prime Minister of England." This prophetic utterance may be mated with another one, by Archdeacon Denison, who said: "I have just heard the best speech I ever heard in my life, by Gladstone, against the Reform Bill. But, mark my words, that man will one day be a Liberal, for he argued against the Bill on liberal ground."

Both these far-seeing men hit the mark. Gladstone became Prime Minister and the leader of the Liberal Party in England. Yet he had been reared as a Conservative, and for many years he marched under the banner of Conservatism. His political career began in the first Reform Parliament, in January, 1833. Two years afterward he was made an under-secretary in Sir Robert Peel's Cabinet. It was under the same premier that he first became a full member of the cabinet, in 1845, as Secretary of State for the Colonies. He was still a Tory in home politics, but had become a Liberal in his commercial ideas, and was Peel's right-hand man in carrying out his great commercial policy.

The repeal of the Corn-laws was the work for which his cabinet had been formed, and Gladstone, as the leading free-

## GLADSTONE AS AN APOSTLE OF REFORM

trader in the Tory ranks was called to it. As for Cobden, the apostle of free-trade, Gladstone admired him immensely. "I do not know," he said in later years, "that there is in any period a man whose public career and life were nobler or more admirable. Of course, I except Washington. Washington, to my mind, is the purest figure in history." As an advocate of free trade Gladstone first came into connection with another noble figure, that of John Bright, who was to remain associated with him during most of his career. In 1857 he first took rank as one of the great moral forces of modern times. In that year he visited Naples, where he saw the barbarous treatment of political prisoners under the government of the infamous King Bomba, and described them in letters whose indignation was breathed in such tremendous tones that England was stirred to its depths and all Europe awakened. These thrilling epistles gave the cause of Italian freedom an impetus that had much to do with its subsequent success, and gained for Gladstone the warmest veneration of patriotic Italians.

### GLADSTONE AND DISRAELI

In 1852 he first came into opposition with the man against whom he was to be pitted during the remainder of his career, Benjamin Disraeli, who had made himself a power in Parliament, and in that year became Chancellor of the Exchequer in Lord Derby's Cabinet and leader of the House of Commons. The revenue budget introduced by him showed a sad lack of financial ability, and called forth sharp criticisms, to which he replied in a speech made up of scoffs, gibes and biting sarcasms, so daring and audacious in character as almost to intimidate the House. As he sat down Mr. Gladstone rose and launched forth into an oration which became historic. He gave voice to that indignation which lay suppressed beneath the cowed feeling which for the moment the Chancellor of the Exchequer's performance had left among his hearers. In a few minutes the House was wildly cheering the intrepid champion who had rushed into the breach, and

## CHAPTER XVII

### The French Republic

#### STRUGGLES OF A NEW NATION

The Republic Declared—The Commune of Paris—Condemnation of the Generals—Gambetta and Boulanger—The Panama Canal Scandal—The Dreyfus Case.

IT has been already told how the capitulation of the French army at Sedan and the captivity of Louis Napoleon were followed in Paris by the overthrow of the empire and the formation of a republic, the third in the history of French political changes. A provisional government was formed, the legislative assembly was dissolved, and all the court paraphernalia of the imperial establishment disappeared. The new government was called in Paris the "Government of Lawyers," most of its members and officials belonging to that profession. At its head was General Trochu, in command of the army in Paris; among its chief members were Jules Favre and Gambetta. While upright in its membership and honorable in its purposes, it was an arbitrary body, formed by a *coup d' état* like that by which Napoleon had seized the reins of power, and not destined for a long existence.

#### THE REPUBLIC ORGANIZED

The news of the fall of Metz and the surrender of Bazaine and his army served as a fresh spark to the inflammable public feeling of France. In Paris the Red Republic raised the banner of insurrection against the government of the national defense and endeavored to revive the spirit of the Commune of 1793. The insurgents marched to the senate-house, demanded the election of a municipal council which should share power with the government, and proceeded to imprison Trochu, Jules Favre, and their associates. This, however, was but a temporary success of the



## THE FRENCH REPUBLIC

Commune, and the provisional government continued in existence until the end of the war, when a national assembly was elected by the people and the temporary government was set aside. Gambetta, the dictator, "the organizer of defects," as he was sarcastically entitled, lost his power, and the aged statesman and historian, Louis Thiers, was chosen as chief of the executive department of the new government.

The treaty of peace with France, including, as it did, the loss of Alsace and Lorraine and the payment of an indemnity of \$1,000,000,000, roused once more the fierce passions of the radicals and the masses of the great cities, who passionately denounced the treaty as due to cowardice and treason. The dethroned emperor added to the excitement by a manifesto, in which he protested against his deposition by the assembly and called for a fresh election. The final incitement to insurrection came when the assembly decided to hold its sessions at Versailles instead of in Paris, whose unruly populace it feared.

### THE COMMUNE OF PARIS

In a moment all the revolutionary elements of the great city were in a blaze. The social democratic "Commune," elected from the central committee of the National Guard, renounced obedience to the government and the National Assembly, and broke into open revolt. An attempt to repress the movement only added to its violence, and all the riotous populace of Paris sprang to arms. A new war was about to be inaugurated in that city which had just suffered so severely from the guns of the Germans, and around which German troops were still encamped.

The government had neglected to take possession of the cannon on Montmartre; and now, when the troops of the line, instead of firing on the insurrectionists, went over in crowds to their side, the supremacy over Paris fell into the hands of the wildest demagogues. A fearful civil war commenced, and in the same forts which the Germans had shortly before evacuated firing

## CHAPTER XVIII

### Origin of the Balkan States

#### CHECKING THE DOMINION OF THE TURK IN EUROPE

The Bulgarian Horrors—Russian Invasion of Turkey—Gallant Defence of Plevna—  
At the Gates of Constantinople—The Congress of Berlin.

**I**N the southeast of Europe lies a group of minor kingdoms, of little importance in size, but of great importance in the progress of recent events. Their sudden uprising in 1912, their conquest of nearly the whole existing remnant of Turkey in Europe, and the subsequent struggle between them for the spoils of the conquest brought them swiftly into prominence. And they are specially important from the fact that Servia, one of this group of states, was the ostensible—hardly the actual—cause of the great European war of 1914.

These, known as the Balkan States from their being traversed by the Balkan range of mountains, comprise the kingdoms of Roumania, Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and the recent and highly artificial kingdom of Albania. Greece is an outlying member of the group.

Of these varied states Servia is of especial interest from its immediate relation to the European contest. Its ancient history, also, possesses much of interest. Minor in extent at present, it was once an extensive empire. Under its monarch, Stephen Dushan (1336–56), it included the whole of Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, Bulgaria, and Northern Greece, leaving little of the Balkan region beyond its borders. In 1389 its independence ended as a result of the battle of Kosova, it becoming tributary to the conquering empire of the Turks. In another half century it became a province of Turkey in Europe, and so remained for nearly two hundred years.

Its succeeding history may be rapidly summarized. In 1718

## ORIGIN OF THE BALKAN STATES

Austria won the greater part of it, with its capital Belgrade, from Turkey, but in 1739 it was regained by the Turks. Barbarous treatment of the Christian population of Servia by its half-civilized rulers led to a series of insurrections, ending in 1812 in its independence, by the terms of the Treaty of Bukarest. The Turks won it back in 1813, but in 1815, under its leader, Milosh, its complete independence was attained.

After the fall of Plevna in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78, Servia joined its forces to those of Russia, and by the Treaty of Berlin it obtained an accession of territory and full recognition by the Powers of Europe of its independence. In 1885 a national rising took place in Eastern Roumelia, a province of Turkey, which led to the Turkish governor being expelled and union with Bulgaria proclaimed. Servia demanded a share of this new acquisition of territory and went to war with Bulgaria and met with a severe defeat. When, in 1908, Austria annexed the former Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the people of Servia were highly indignant, these provinces being largely inhabited by people of the Servian race. The exasperation thus caused is of importance, especially as augmented by the agency of Austria in preventing Servia from obtaining a port on the Adriatic after the Balkan war of 1912-13. The seething feeling of enmity thus engendered had its final outcome in the assassination of the Austrian Crown Prince Ferdinand in 1914, and the subsequent invasion of Servia by the armies of Austria.

We have here spoken of the stages by which Servia gradually won its independence from Turkey and its recognition as a full-fledged member of the European family of nations. There are several others of the Balkan group which similarly won independence from Turkey and to the story of which some passing allusion is desirable.

How Greece won its independence has been already told. Another of the group, the diminutive mountain state of Montenegro, much the smallest of them all, has the honor of being the



## CHAPTER XIX

### Great Britain and Her Colonies

#### HOW ENGLAND BECAME MISTRESS OF THE SEAS

England as a Colonizing Power—Canada as a Right Arm of the Empire—Australia and India—South Africa and the Boer War—The Partition of Africa.

**I**N the era preceding the nineteenth century Spain, France, and Great Britain were the great colonizing powers, the last named being the latest in the field, but rapidly rising to become the most important.

The active powers in colonization within the nineteenth century were the great rivals of the preceding period, Great Britain and France, though the former gained decidedly the start, and its colonial empire today surpasses that of any other nation of mankind. It is so enormous, in fact, as to dwarf the parent kingdom, which is related to its colonial dominion, so far as comparative size is concerned, as the small brain of the elephant is related to its great body.

Other powers, not heard of as colonizers in the past, have recently come into this field, though too late to obtain any of the great prizes. These are Germany and Italy, the latter having recently added to its acquisitions by the conquest of Tripoli. But there is a great power still to name, which in its way stands as a rival to Great Britain, the empire of Russia, whose acquisitions in Asia have grown enormous in extent. These are not colonies in the ordinary sense, but rather results of the expansion of an empire through warlike aggression, but they are colonial in the sense of absorbing the excess population of European Russia. The great territory of Siberia was gained by Russia before the nineteenth century, but within recent years the Russian dominion in Asia has greatly increased, though it seems approaching its limits.

## GREAT BRITAIN AND HER COLONIES

### GREAT BRITAIN AS A COLONIZING POWER

With this preliminary review we may proceed to consider the history of colonization within the recent period. And first we must take up the results of the colonial enterprise of Great Britain, as much the most important of the whole. In addition to Hindustan, in which the dominion of Great Britain now extends to Afghanistan and Thibet in the north, the British acquisitions in Asia now include Burmah and the west-coast region of Indo-China, with the Straits Settlements in the Malay peninsula, and the island of Ceylon, acquired in 1802 from Holland.

In the eastern seas Great Britain possesses another colony of vast dimensions, the continental island of Australia, which, with its area of nearly 3,000,000 square miles, is three-fourths the size of Europe. The first British settlement was made here in 1788, at Port Jackson, the site of the present thriving city of Sydney, and the island was long maintained as a penal settlement, convicts being sent there as late as 1868. It was the discovery of gold in 1851 to which Australia owed its great progress. The incitement of the yellow metal drew the enterprising thither by thousands until the population of the colony is now more than 3,500,000, and is growing at a rapid rate, it having developed other valuable resources besides that of gold. Of its cities, Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, with its suburbs, has more than 500,000 population; Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, 600,000, while there are other cities of rapid growth. Australia is the one important British colony obtained without a war. In its human beings, as in its animals generally, it stood at a low level of development, and it was taken possession of without a protest from the savage inhabitants.

### OTHER COLONIES IN THE PACIFIC REGION

The same cannot be said of the inhabitants of New Zealand, an important group of islands lying east of Australia, which was acquired by Great Britain as a colony in 1840. The Maoris, as

## CHAPTER XX

### The Open Door in China and Japan

#### DEVELOPMENT OF WORLD POWER IN THE EAST

Commodore Perry and his Treaty—Japan Joins the Ranks of Modern Civilization—China-Japan War—Annexation of Corea—Republican Revolution in China.

**A**SIA, the greatest of the continents and the seat of the earliest civilizations, yields us the most remarkable phenomenon in the history of mankind. In remote ages, while Europe lay plunged in the deepest barbarism, certain sections of Asia were marked by surprising activity in thought and progress. In three far-separated regions—China, India, and Babylonia—and in a fourth on the borders of Asia—Egypt—civilization rose and flourished for ages, while the savage and the barbarian roamed over all other regions of the earth. A still more extraordinary fact is, that during the more recent era, that of European civilization, Asia has rested in the most sluggish conservatism, sleeping while Europe and America were actively moving, content with its ancient knowledge while the people of the West were pursuing new knowledge into its most secret lurking places.

And this conservatism was an almost immovable one. For a century England has been pouring new thought and new enterprise into India, yet the Hindus cling stubbornly to their remotely ancient beliefs and customs. For half a century Europe has been hammering upon the gates of China, but the sleeping nation long showed little signs of waking to the fact that the world was moving around it. As regards the other early civilizations—Babylonia and Egypt—they have been utterly swamped under the tide of Turkish barbarism and exist only in their ruins. Persia, once a great and flourishing empire, has likewise sunk under the flood of Arabian and Turkish invasion, and today seems in danger of



## THE OPEN DOOR IN CHINA AND JAPAN

being swallowed up in the tide of Russian and British ambition. Such was the Asia upon which the nineteenth century dawned, and such it remains in part today, though in one section of its vast area modern civilization has gained a firm foothold.

The section referred to is the island empire of Japan, a nation the people of which are closely allied in race to those of China, yet which has displayed a progressiveness and a readiness to avail itself of the resources of modern civilization remarkable in character. The development of Japan has taken place within a brief period. Previous to that time it was as resistant to western influences as China. They were both closed nations, prohibiting the entrance of modern ideas and peoples, proud of their own form of civilization and their own institutions, and sternly resolved to keep out the disturbing influences of the restless West. As a result, they remained locked against the new civilization until after the nineteenth century was well advanced, and China's disposition to avail itself of the results of modern invention was not manifested until the century was near its end.

### COMMODORE PERRY AND HIS TREATY

The isolation of Japan was maintained longer than that of China, trade with that country being of less importance, and foreign nations knowing and caring less about it. The United States has the credit of breaking down its long and stubborn seclusion and setting in train the remarkably rapid development of the Japanese island empire. In 1854 Commodore Perry appeared with an American fleet in the bay of Yeddo, and, by a show of force and a determination not to be rebuffed, he forced the authorities to make a treaty of commercial intercourse with the United States. Other nations quickly demanded similar privileges, and Japan's obstinate resistance to foreign intercourse was at an end.

The result of this was revolutionary in Japan. For centuries the Shogun, or Tycoon, the principal military noble, had been dominant in the empire, and the Mikado, the true emperor, rele-

## CHAPTER XXIII

### The Meaning of Mobilization

European Conscription—Military Assignments—Rapidity of Mobilization—Drafting of Horses—Transportation and Concentration—Facilities for Communication.

**M**OBILIZATION in Europe is conscription. Practically every able-bodied citizen must serve a term in the army. His assignment is known, he is on the army lists; unless he reports he is considered a deserter. In Germany the mobilization order is issued by the Emperor. It is immediately promulgated by all military and civil authorities, at home and abroad. Every individual knows at once what to do. Skeleton regiments are filled out and additional regiments formed. Simultaneously there is a levy of horses. The order reaches into every household; into the factories, the shipyards, the hotels, the farms, river boats, everywhere. Almost instantly the male individuals within the prescribed ages must at once report to the barracks to come under military discipline. Infantry, cavalry and artillery units double and triple at once.

This is the first step in mobilization. The second is the transportation and concentration of forces. The railways are seized, the telegraph and telephone systems. Mail, military, aerial and railway services are assigned. The commissary lines are laid and transportation provided for. With marvelous efficiency the full fighting strength, in front and rear, is made ready and coordinated.

The psychological effect of mobilization is tremendous. In every household home ties are broken. The fields are stripped of men. Industry stops. Artillery rolls through the streets, bands play. An atmosphere of apprehension settles down on the country. Ordinary occupations cease; new conditions of life exist. And

## CHAPTER XXIV

### The Airship in Modern Warfare

Chief Service in Reconnaissance—Use of Bombs—Aircraft Strength of the Nations—Dirigibles and Heavier-than-Air Machines—Hydro-Aeroplanes—National Characteristics in Aircraft—Aeroplanes with Wireless Equipment.

**T**HE consensus of opinion among aerial and military experts is that the greatest service that may be rendered by aircraft in naval and military operations is almost entirely in connection with reconnaissance. Under certain special circumstances both aeroplanes and airships might be used for offensive purposes, but no nation owns aircraft in sufficient quantities to make them an important consideration as weapons.

It is possible for a couple of German airships to make a dash for Paris or London with the idea of causing a tumult among the populace, but they run big risks of being destroyed by faster aeroplanes. Aeroplanes would be used as weapons against airships, as even a small aeroplane could carry hand grenades of sufficient size to destroy an airship, and it is also likely that in every country pilots could be found who would be willing to sacrifice their lives by driving the aeroplanes headfirst into an airship.

It is positively known that British officers are prepared to do so, and it is said that a certain French aeroplane squadron avowed this purpose when German airships crossed the French border.

It is also true that some of the larger aeroplanes would be used to drop bombs over troops in camp, chiefly with the idea of destroying discipline and stampeding the horses.

Few aeroplanes could carry more than four bombs weighing fifty pounds apiece.

The greatest aircraft force is possessed by Germany, which



## THE AIRSHIP OF MODERN WARFARE

has ten Zeppelins, capable of flying from ten to thirty hours, and two others on the point of completion. These two and four of the other ten are capable of traveling fifty and sixty miles an hour.

As regards aeroplanes, Germany is far ahead of any other country, as far as the all-around efficiency of its machines is concerned, although France and England have perhaps some faster machines.

The total number of aeroplanes in Germany is kept a military secret, but it is believed that Germany has about three times as many as she is supposed to have, and she is supposed to have four times as many as England. On this computation Germany must have over six hundred.

Recent German world's records include altitude records, with and without passengers, and duration records starting at thirteen hours and progressing to twenty-four, all made absolutely with biplanes of standard type, with engines of about one hundred horse-power, such as are turned out in hundreds by one or two of Germany's big motor-car factories.

The best German machines have a speed of perhaps eighty miles an hour and the worst, fifty. German pilots, though generally reported not so skilful as those of France and England, have shown greater staying power and determination.

The next largest air fleet to Germany's belongs to France. In airships France is extremely weak, and at the moment owns only three comparatively small and low-powered craft which cannot be compared with the Zeppelins.

France possesses possibly as many aeroplanes as Germany, but recently there has been an outcry against the shocking state of neglect into which a majority of French machines have been allowed to fall. Also most French military machines are slower than those of Germany. The French army owns a certain number of comparatively fast monoplanes capable of carrying an observer as a passenger, but their radius is much less than that of the German machines.

# DRAMATIC INCIDENTS OF THE --- GREAT WAR ---

Charles Morris says that "War has two aspects, that of its series of events as given in official reports in historical sequence, and that of **ITS DRAMATIC INCIDENTS** as told by **THOSE WHO SAW OR TOOK PART IN THE DEADLY FRAY.**" It is to the latter feature that the author has devoted the following chapters covering vivid pictures of the Great War as told by those who had the fortune to witness them.

## THRILLING CHAPTERS NEW TO HISTORY

These incidents are intended to show the difference between not only the methods of present-day warfare with that of the warfare of the past, but also the difference in the means of warfare and its consequent terrifying results. The Great War has progressed to a point where such scenes and incidents have taken place that are new to history or that have a particular interest in the war; and in the continuance of the war, it will only be a repetition of such scenes and incidents as depicted in the following chapters. These chapters will therefore have a particular day-to-day interest during the progress of the war, as well as permanent interest after the war.

## SUCCESS BRINGS ITS BENEFITS

In the original announcements of this work, no promise was made of these valuable and interesting concluding chapters, and were it not for the great success of this book, it would be impossible to add to the already large book offered for the money without increasing the price. But we have been able to print larger editions of the work than we anticipated and have therefore been able to reduce the cost of producing the book. The book will therefore be made to include this additional matter, and will contain **498 PAGES, WITHOUT ANY CHANGE IN PRICE.**

## CHAPTER XXV

### The World's Greatest War

Wars as Mileposts—A Continent in Arms—The Loyalty of the British Colonies—  
How Canada Prepared for War—The British Sentiment—Lord Kitchener's Career—  
A Forceful Character—A Baptism of Fire—The Unseen Foe.

THE history of the leading events in the nations of Europe during a hundred years of the past, so far as they related to the decline of autocratic power in the monarchs and the development of popular rights and liberty, has been given in the preceding chapters, where it is brought down to the close of the Balkan War and the opening of the great war that succeeded in 1914. As regards this war, its story cannot be told or even summarized in a chapter, but some indication of its general character may be given.

#### WARS AS MILEPOSTS

Wars serve as convenient mileposts in the history of mankind. They deal with the great struggles which break up the monotony of peace and bring the nations into volcanic relations. They have been many and their causes and effects various; strifes for spoil or dominion; savage invasions of civilized lands; overflow of vast areas by conquering tribes or nations. But among all the world has so far known there has been none so stupendous in character, so portentous in purpose, so vast in fighting multitudes, so terrible in bloodshed, as the one with which we are here concerned, the lurid meeting of the nations on the blood-stained field of battle which broke upon the quiet of the world with startling suddenness in the summer of 1914. Launched on the borders of little Servia, it soon had the continent for its field of action, and all but one of the greater nations of Europe for its participants.



## CHAPTER XXVI

### Thrilling Incidents of the Great War Told by Eye-Witnesses

The Famous "White Papers"—"Only a Scrap of Paper"—Under Fire—The German Army—Within the Battle Lines—How the Germans March—Soldiers in Life and in Death—"Destruction that Wasteth at Noonday."

WAR has two aspects, that of its series of events, as given in official reports and historic sequence, and that of its dramatic incidents, as told by those who saw or took part in the deadly fray. It is with the latter aspect that we propose here to deal. The story of the Great War must await the pen of the historian, but many vivid vignettes of its events have been sketched by those who had the fortune to witness them, and it is with these that this chapter will be chiefly concerned.

#### THE FAMOUS "WHITE PAPERS"

During the month of August the illuminating "White Papers" were made public—the English "White Paper" containing the correspondence between Sir Edward Grey, the Foreign Secretary, and the representatives of Great Britain in the various countries of Europe, and the German "White Book" containing the diplomatic correspondence preceding the war and the statement of the German government in its own defense. From these it is evident that Sir Edward Grey did everything in his power to bring about some just and peaceful settlement, continuing his efforts without intermission during the ten days that elapsed between the presentation of Austria's demand on Serbia and the beginning of the war on August 2d. During this time he sent forty-seven letters and telegrams to British representatives at the European capitals, and, to quote from the *Outlook*, "in this correspondence he was representing a democratic government. He had to consider in every

dead Frenchmen are three yards from this spot—and then the assault passed on. Pierced by bayonets, the Germans fell with their backs against the improvised parapets.

“Twisted bayonets and broken rifles that remain here speak of violence, of a swift, fierce and desperate combat. The Germans fell in small squads. A group of corpses lies around the body of an officer. The retreat was protected by the successive sacrifices of little companies.

“The dead can be distinguished only by their uniforms. On the ground French and Germans are the same. Racial characteristics vanish beneath the cruel mask of death. In its eternal truce there is fraternity.

“Each German corpse has a knapsack on its back. It is irreproachable, as though prepared for review. Nothing is disarranged. Cartridge belts, scabbards, equipment of all kinds, rolled overcoats, tent canvas—everything is neatly folded, laced and buckled. All seem to form an integral part of the body. Even the spiked helmet remains fixed on the head.

“Nothing creates the impression of a routed army. If the French corpses reveal the irresistible fury of the assault, the German dead display order and discipline. The German army is beaten, but not routed. It retired quickly, but methodically.

“Besides material it abandoned also its wounded, but with them it left behind whole sections of its hospital corps to look after them. The French make prisoners of the wounded and of their nurses, doctors, and dispensers, who maintain their rank and authority, and all these for a little German organization which continues to act automatically in the midst of the French army, isolated and imperturbable, with its rigid salutes and imperious commands, just as if nothing had happened.”

#### “DESTRUCTION THAT WASTETH AT NOONDAY”

The German soldier is a thoroughly trained machine. He does what he is told, whether to march in mass on a battery of machine





**The Most Stupendous Conflict in the History of Man**

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# **THE NATIONS OF EUROPE**

## **The Causes and Issues of THE GREAT WAR**

**By CHARLES MORRIS**

Author of "Civilization: An Historical Review of the Elements," "Our Naval Heroes," "World Famous Orators," "Home Life in All Lands," etc.

Mr. Morris, an historical writer of international reputation, has traced the long train of complicated events, which, starting at the close of the Napoleon era, have culminated in the greatest war of history. It is the fascinating, illuminating story of the most brilliant and far-reaching diplomatic struggles and military achievements of all times. Such a record usually lies buried in dull books of statesmanship, but here an able and accurate writer has laid bare the true facts with all the interest of a novel of international intrigue.

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